The Outlook

Vol. 67 March 30, 1901 No. 13

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The Outlook is a Weekly Newspaper and an Illustrated Monthly Magazine in one. It is published every Saturday—fifty-two issues a year. The first issue in each month is an Illustrated Magazine Number, containing about twice as many pages as the regular weekly issue, and many pictures.

Price.—The subscription price is Three Dollars a year, payable in advance. Ten cents a copy.

Postage is Prepaid by the publishers for all subscriptions in the United States, Canada, and Mexico. For all other countries in the Postal Union add $1.56 for postage.

Change of Address.—When a change of address is ordered, both the new and the old address must be given. The notice should be sent one week before the change is to take effect.

Discontinuances.—If a subscriber wishes his copy of the paper discontinued at the expiration of his subscription, notice to that effect should be sent. Otherwise it is assumed that a continuance of the subscription is desired.

How to Remit.—Remittances should be sent by Draft on New York, Express-Order, or Money-Order, payable to order of THE OUTLOOK COMPANY. Cash should be sent in Registered Letter.

Letters should be addressed:

THE OUTLOOK COMPANY

287 Fourth Avenue, New York

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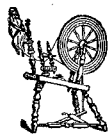

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The Outlook

Published Weekly

Vol. 67 March 30, 1901 No. 13

Chinese Integrity Territorial and Commercial

Instructing Mr. Rockhill, the American Special Agent in China, last week, Mr. Hay, Secretary of State, reiterated the consistent position which the United States has held in insisting upon the commercial and territorial integrity of China. In order to secure this, Mr. Hay has bent every effort of his Department towards the re-establishment in China of a real Government—one not only able but willing to keep treaty obligations. We note with satisfaction that this policy is now approved in a quarter where it has been adversely criticised. The London "Spectator" has come to the conclusion that the British Government might well adopt Mr. Hay's policy, a policy which it no longer describes as "timid" and "vacillating," but "firm" and "courageous." The "Spectator" declares that "British policy ought to be to quit Peking as the American troops have done, to let the remainder of Europe hamper itself with Chinese territory if it so please, the British demanding only as the price of the quiescence of their fleet that, as regards commercial affairs, there shall be no favoritism whatsoever." This guarantee of the open door is precisely what Mr. Hay secured some time ago; China is to be open to all traders who shall pay dues under an equal tariff. "Why should England go to war in China," asks the "Spectator," "to secure a trade which we can secure, if we will let the rest of the world alone, without firing a shot? If Europe likes to try the awful experiment of governing China, let it. Our business is to trade with it, and to secure that right of trade; the sooner we disappear from Peking and all North China the better. All the shilly-shallying now going on only increases the chances of some event or some combination which will plunge us more deeply into the Chinese swamp, or compel us to threaten war with Powers who in this matter are doing us no substantial harm." The particular Powers referred to are Russia and Germany, and the particular provinces which these two Powers have in mind to absorb are, first, Manchuria for Russia and Shantung for Germany; second, Mongolia and Chinese Turkestan for Russia, with a probable division on the subject of Chili. If the British will not guarantee territorial integrity, it is a satisfaction to observe that they are now more inclined to the American policy, that of safeguarding the first interest of her citizens and also a primal interest of the Chinese Empire—the open door, or, in other words, commercial integrity.

❀

England and Russia in China

Last week the British and Russian Governments agreed to withdraw their respective forces from the disputed territory in Tientsin, China, and to reserve the whole question of title and proprietary rights for later examination. The territory in question is a valuable strip which Russia secretly seized while acting with the foreign allies in the march to Peking. Though the area included a plot belonging to the Chinese Northern Railway, and hence was a part of the security of the British bondholders, Russia used her influence with Li-Hung-Chang to obtain title to it, and was successful. It is believed that the wily Chinaman not only received an abundant recompense for his services in the matter, but that by the transaction he sought a way to bring the two most powerful of the allies into collision, and thereby disrupt the concert of the Powers. The military crisis provoked by Russia would undoubtedly not have taken place if there were no Boer war, making it impossible for Great Brit-

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ain to meet the Russian army with an equal demonstration. Nevertheless, the Anglo-German agreement operated somewhat as a safeguard against a war scare in England, on account of the belief that, in any event, the Governments of England and Germany would stand together, even if, by the third article of their agreement, they were compelled to follow Russia's precedent in beginning the partition of China. In response to the protest of all the other Powers, Russia has now agreed (according to the usually reliable Dr. Morrison, of the London "Times") to eliminate the clause in the proposed Russo-Chinese agreement granting exclusive privileges in Mongolia and Turkestan. But these amendments do not essentially modify the character of the Convention as creating a permanent Russian protectorate over all North China. It is believed from the text of the Convention that there has been a series of secret agreements between Russia and China, of which the first was the one negotiated by Li-Hung-Chang in his mission to Russia five years ago, and the last his agreement concerning the Tientsin property.

❀

The Russian Students Last week extraordinary events occurred at the universities of St. Petersburg, Moscow, Kiev, Kharkov, and Odessa. Hundreds of students at each place resolved to attend lectures no longer. Open-air meetings were held at which inflammatory speeches were delivered; many arrests followed for violation of the law prohibiting such meetings, and rioting took place. The present student turmoil is the most serious, as it is the most widespread, with which the Russian Government has had to deal. The danger to the Government can be realized when we consider that it is asserted that, following the example of France in fomenting trouble at Fashoda during the Dreyfus difficulties, Russia has exaggerated the affair at Tientsin, China, in order to divert attention from internal peril, in the hope that an external danger may unite all children of the "Little Father," as Russians call their Czar. The troubles began at Kiev. Last December a student there stole some jewels in the dressing-room of a music-hall singer, and was discovered. The students held a mass-meeting and denounced the thief. As the right of assembly is not yet recognized in Russia, the University authorities announced that the ringleaders in the meeting would be incarcerated. Up to that time no one in Kiev University had ever been so sentenced. Two of the students refused to undergo the sentence; they were expelled from the University and ordered by the police immediately to leave the city. Their departure was made the occasion of a demonstration by the students, at which demands were formulated for presentation to the University authorities to abolish the punishment of incarceration. The Governor of Kiev now interfered, and ordered the rector of the University to meet with the students. The rector did so, and refused to grant their demands. Thereupon the students ordered a strike, and the police promptly arrested two hundred, who were not only expelled from the University but actually condemned by the civil authorities to serve as privates in the army. As the maximum penalty for holding mass-meetings has been imprisonment for short terms or a fine of about fifty dollars, the punishment inflicted upon the Kiev students is harsh even for Russia. It is small wonder that a sympathetic strike has occurred in other universities, and perhaps it is not surprising that riots have also occurred. The situation is complicated by the fact that almost all of the Russian students are members of secret societies which have for their object absolute freedom from present political and religious restraints. These disorders are sufficiently ominous, but the situation is made still more dangerous by the discovery of a plot, with extensive ramifications, against the life of the Emperor, and by sanguinary disturbances in St. Petersburg between Cossacks and workingmen. At a council held by the Czar on Saturday it was decided not to abolish the law for drafting recalcitrant students into the army, but for the present to refrain from applying it. It was also decided to revise the university statutes. This action is interpreted as indicating a desire on the part of the Government to give the grievances of the students a hearing, and to apply at least a partial remedy. Threatening letters have been received by a number of important Russian officials;

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and the state of unrest in many parts of the Empire is apparently becoming acute.

❀

General Botha Declines Peace Terms

Last week it was the duty of Mr. Chamberlain, the Colonial Secretary, to announce to the House of Commons the very unwelcome news that Commander-in-Chief Botha of the Boer Army had refused the terms of peace which the British had offered. The fact that Mr. Chamberlain made the explanation showed that Sir Alfred Milner was the principal negotiator with the Boer leaders, using Lord Kitchener as his mouthpiece; if Lord Kitchener had been the principal negotiator, Mr. Brodrick, War Secretary, would have been the man to make the announcement. The terms offered by the British Government were, according to Sir Alfred Milner's memorandum, that, on the cessation of hostilities and the complete surrender of arms, the British Government would immediately grant amnesty in the Transvaal and Orange River Colony for all acts of war, as well as move the Cape Colony and Natal Governments to similar action, qualified by the disfranchisement of any British subjects who have been implicated in the war; the military prisoners at St. Helena, Ceylon, and elsewhere would be brought back to the country; what is of more importance, military law would at once be replaced by civil administration; and as soon as possible a representative government would be established, and also a High Court, independent of the Executive, to administer laws. Sir Alfred announced that land, church property, trusts, and orphan funds would be respected; that both the English and Dutch languages would be taught in the public schools and allowed in court; that State legal debts to the amount of five million dollars would be paid, even if contracted during hostilities; finally, that the Government would not extend the franchise to the blacks before a representative government was granted. These liberal terms, which do credit to Sir Alfred Milner's statesmanship, were refused, ostensibly because of the exclusion of the Cape Dutch from the amnesty, but also, perhaps, because the Boers expected by holding out to obtain even more liberal indemnity terms. It is suggested, however, that General Botha's willingness to negotiate may have been merely a ruse to gain time, and to give General De Wet a chance to reach a district where recruits were to be had.

❀

The President and Mr. Addicks

We distrust newspaper "specials" from Washington; the reporters are not usually admitted to private conferences between the President and visiting delegations, and they have either to invent their accounts or to depend for the material of which the accounts are composed on gossipy and often prejudiced accounts picked up from individuals who are present. We therefore do not credit the report which comes from Washington that the President has determined to administer the Federal patronage in Delaware in such a way as to secure the election of Mr. Addicks to the United States Senate. We do not doubt that the President desires to see Delaware represented in the Senate, as she ought to be. It is not impossible that he may hold the view to which Senator Hoar gave expression in the discussion respecting the case of Mr. Clark, of Montana, that it is the constitutional right of the State to be represented, and that it is more important to conserve this right than to secure good men to represent the State. Probably he would find two Administration Senators who were committed to a support of its policy on pending measures a very great convenience. But we shall not believe that he has entered into or will enter into any kind of partnership with Mr. Addicks, or will use the Federal patronage to strengthen Mr. Addicks's political influence in the State of Delaware, without some better evidence than that of a Washington "special." Mr. Addicks is apparently a Republican only for his own benefit. He has shown no indication of any unselfish devotion to the party, or to its principles, or to the State which he is ambitious to represent. The story of Mr. Addicks's attempt to secure a seat in the United States Senate, from a State with which he has no real identity of interest, has, happily for America's reputation, nothing in recent history parallel to it, unless it be the attempt of Mr. Clark to buy a seat in the United

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States Senate from Montana. If his going to Delaware, and his identifying of himself with the State and with the Republican party in that State, have been for any other reason than that he could thus procure for himself the honor of a seat in the United States Senate, if there is any other reason for giving him that seat than that he has money and the kind of influence which money gives, he is the unhappy victim of circumstantial evidence which there has been nothing to contradict. For the President to ally himself, or appear to ally himself, with this man would be an act full of dishonor to himself and of public peril to his party. To use Federal patronage in a State to control its election to the United States Senate is bad enough, though we fear it is not uncommon. To use the Federal patronage for the purpose of seating in the United States Senate a man with the unsavory National reputation of Mr. Addicks would be worse politics than has yet been charged against Mr. McKinley even by his political foes. It would be at once a political blunder and a political crime; and the fact, if it is a fact, that the President has appointed to a postmastership an Addicks adherent, on the recommendation of a retiring Representative for Congress, is not sufficient evidence on which to base the charge of so serious and so criminal a blunder on a politician so clear-headed as Mr. McKinley has shown himself to be. No possible support which his administration could gain from Delaware in the Senate could counterbalance the injury which such a course would do his administration throughout the country.

❀

Conditions in Hawaii

The results of even quasi-independence coupled with universal suffrage in a community for whose well-being the United States is responsible, as they are shown in Hawaii, are not such as to commend this method to those who judge political principles by their actual results in practical operation. The Hawaiian Legislature elected under American sovereignty is largely composed of men who bitterly opposed the union of Hawaii with the United States, and who have elected as a delegate to the United States one who has been persistently opposed, and apparently still is opposed, not only to its sovereignty, but to any organic relationship between the United States and Hawaii. Some of the members of the native legislature are, or have been, avowed advocates of the reinstating of Queen Liliuokalani Some of the legislators do not speak English. The Federal law requiring the proceedings of the Legislature to be transacted in English has been, so far as they are concerned, ignored, and the presence of a representative of the Federal Government, whose office it was to report the proceedings of the Legislature to the President, has been resented, and he has been turned out of the House by the sergeant-at-arms. According to a correspondent of the New York "Evening Post," the Legislature is ready to put straightway upon trial a number of radical experiments which in most countries have not yet passed the stage of public discussion, such as the single tax, proportional representation, and the government liquor dispensary system. It is also said to be preparing to vote an award of $250,000 to the ex-Queen, for what reasons other than those of sentiment we do not know. It is too early yet to predict with confidence what the results will be in Hawaii; but the present indications are at least a temporary rule of ignorance, incompetence, and corruption under the leadership of demagogues, which, although it may initiate some useful experiments, will probably rival, if it does not eclipse, the temporary carpetbag rule in the Southern States. We hope that these apprehensions, apparently entertained by the well informed, may be proved by events to be at least not wholly justified; but they should be sufficient to put us on our guard in dealing with other dependencies for whose government we are responsible.

❀

In the Philippines

Several interesting items of news have come from the Philippine Islands during the last week. The most important is that reporting the surrender in the island of Panay of the insurgent commander, General Fullon, with one hundred and eighty rifles. General MacArthur cables that, in his judgment, this ends the insurrection in Panay. In other parts of the archi-

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pelago advances have been made in the establishing of provisional government. A peculiar situation exists in the island of Negros, where civil government has existed for some time, and is, in form at least, more elective in its methods than will be the new provisional government which is to be established. Here and elsewhere there have been urgent demands on the part of the people for greater educational facilities and for improvement of roads and reduction of taxes. It is stated, apparently semi-officially, that about the first of July Judge Taft will be inaugurated as the first Civil Governor of the island, and that General Chaffee will succeed to the military command. Though we speak with some reserve, it appears that the substitution of civil for military government already initiated has done much to abate Filipino hostility to the American flag, and to confirm the view that this hostility was rather to military government than to American sovereignty. The pacification is, however, far from complete; small engagements and attacks continue to be reported from different parts of Luzon; and it is reported that in the island of Marinduque Major Smith, who is in command, has adopted a policy apparently resembling the reconcentration policy employed by General Weyler in Cuba. Information as to the exact facts does not, however, seem sufficient to warrant intelligent comment. In Manila last week a crowd of five or six hundred native women went to the palace, carrying American flags and cheering for the United States, to urge that political prisoners should be released; the request was refused, on the ground that it could not be considered until peace was declared. A somewhat sensational despatch declares that General Funston is now engaged in a daring attempt to penetrate into Isabella Province, where, it is supposed by some, Aguinaldo is in hiding, and that deserters from Aguinaldo have offered to betray him.

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Patronage and Congress

Congressman Moody's report upon the number and salaries of the employees of the House of Representatives more than justifies the Democratic criticisms which occasioned the investigation. From the synopsis published by the Springfield "Republican" it appears that, quite apart from the members' clerks, there are 357 assistants employed by the House, at a yearly expense of $400,000. All these assistants are supposed to be appointed by four officers elected by the majority party—the clerk, the doorkeeper, the sergeant-at-arms, and the postmaster. As a matter of fact, these officers do not seem to appoint at all, but simply distribute places among the Congressmen electing them. Even this distribution is not effected in an orderly way, but a large number of men on the rolls as performing one kind of work are found to be doing something entirely different, or to be at home on a long vacation at the demand of the members appointing them. Furthermore, some men actually performing the work for which they are paid are contributing part of their salaries to other men who do nothing, but whose Congressional backer must be appeased by a share of the patronage. "In the organization of the House," says the Moody report, "it appears that more places, or places with higher salaries, were promised than the officers of the House were able to discover under the law. There began at once a system whereby the employees agreed to contribute greater or less portions of the salaries they received for the purpose either of paying persons not on the roll or of increasing the compensation of persons who were on the roll." As an illustration of the chaos created by this division of patronage we cite only one of the many cases brought into prominence by the report:

> Winthrop C. Jones is carried on the roll as a locksmith under the clerk's department, at a salary of $1,440, while in point of fact he performs the duty of a messenger under the doorkeeper's department at the southwest door of the House lobby, and his duties as locksmith are performed by Daniel P. Hickling, who is on the doorkeeper's roll as a session folder at $75 per month. Thus the position of locksmith, the duties of which require only a payment of $75 per month during the session, pays to a man who performs none of its duties $1,440 per annum. And this is not all. There are four other men serving with Jones as messengers at the southwest lobby door. The five men all do exactly the same work, while their respective rates of pay are different. Thus, while Jones receives $1,440, George E. Page, a folder, receives $840; Willard Wilson, also a folder, receives $900; John Deardorff, on

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the messenger's roll, receives $1,000, and George Jenison . . . receives $1,200 per annum.

❀

Appointment by Pull

Only two of the six employees here mentioned are on the rolls as performing their actual work. Hickling, however, who is now getting $75 a month as a folder while performing the locksmith's work for which Jones is getting $1,440 a year while acting as messenger, was in a former Congress actually on the rolls as a locksmith. The testimony taken upon this point is especially illuminating:

Q. How did he (Hickling) happen to be removed from that position? A. Several members of the Michigan delegation thought they hadn't their share.

Q. Where did he come from? A. Who, Hickling?

Q. Yes. A. He is from the District here.

Q. And had no Congressman? A. No.

Q. So that, on the demand of the Michigan delegation, you removed a competent locksmith who was doing the work and drawing the pay of the place and had him appointed, I believe, as a session folder at $75 a month? A. Yes, sir.

The effects of the principle of "appointment by pull" have rarely been illustrated more vividly. For the sake of its own good name, the House should order a complete revision of these lists, at the hands of a non-partisan body, on Civil Service Reform principles. Congressman Bailey, of Texas, and Gillette, of Massachusetts, have recently urged that Congress should be debarred by law from recommending the appointment of any persons to positions under the control of the Executive departments. The suggestion is an admirable one, and should be applied to appointments for all positions under the National Government, including those of the House itself. Not only would this restore the independence of the Legislature from the influence of executive spoils-giving, and the independence of the Executive from the influence of legislative spoils-seeking, but it would also promote in all branches of the National service the salutary principle of appointment for personal fitness instead of appointment for political pressure.

❀

Governor Odell's Independence

Senator Platt can no longer be regarded as the "boss" of the Republican party in New York State. The word "boss" was authoritatively defined by Mr. Croker when he explained that he himself was called one merely because people saw that "What I say goes." Last week the people saw, to their surprise, that what Senator Platt said did not go. For a fortnight past, he, and his son, and his followers had been declaring that a metropolitan district police bill would be passed by the present session of the Legislature. Heretofore a thing thus prophesied has been accepted as predestined, and in this case many papers at once announced that the passage of the police bill was assured. But, to the surprise and gratification of nearly every one, what Senator Platt predicted Governor Odell has interdicted. The bill scheduled by the Senator was carefully planned. It contemplated a Metropolitan Police District which included not only the city of New York but certain portions of neighboring counties—nominally to give the police oversight of the city's water reservoirs, but really to permit the appointment of the Police Commissioner from Albany without violating the Constitution's provision that county and city officials shall be chosen by the local governments which pay their salaries. The letter of the Constitution was perhaps conformed to, but Governor Odell promptly and quietly pointed out that the spirit of the Constitution was certainly violated, and added that the present situation did not demand the passage of a bill denying home rule to New York City. From all parts of the State, and from nearly all classes of people, the Governor's stand was enthusiastically welcomed. Almost the only opposition came from those who regard party politics as primarily a struggle for party patronage. Some of Governor Odell's friends are said to have reminded him that he had favored a metropolitan police bill when he was Chairman of the Republican State Committee; but his reply is said to have been that what he favored as the representative of the Republican party did not determine what he favored as the representative of the State of New York. The principle here laid down is not the highest one in political ethics, but it is incomparably above the partisanship which often governs public officials. No man, indeed, has a right to put the interests of his party above the interests of the State, but the course which

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is generally excused in the executive officer of the party is inexcusable in the executive officer of the State. In the present case we believe that Governor Odell has served his party as well as his State, for no course could strengthen Tammany Hall so much as one which would enable it to stand as the champion of home rule in the approaching municipal campaign.

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Taxation of Mortgages

The New York Legislature has been considering a succession of tax reform measures favored by Governor Odell for the purpose of lessening the unequal burdens now resting upon real estate. One of these measures requires trust companies to be taxed in something like the same measure as the banks with which they compete; another taxes savings banks on the surplus they have accumulated, and a third increases the general taxes upon corporations. All the new taxes imposed are found upon analysis to be relatively light—that upon savings banks, for example, hardly exceeding one-tenth of one per cent. upon the deposits in these institutions. The outcry against this particular tax as an unjust burden upon the poor is utterly without foundation, for, in the first place, the tax is much lighter than is imposed upon savings banks by neighboring States in New England, and, in the second place—as the New England States recognize—savings banks deposits are in a considerable measure the property of well-to-do and even rich people, who often carry accounts in many banks and even many accounts in the same bank. These depositors are as well able to pay taxes as the owners of small homes and farms. The only objection to such taxes is that the money taxed is in large part loaned to the owners of homes and farms, and the tax on the money finally rests on the real estate mortgaged. The same objection applies still more strongly to the proposed tax of one-half of one per cent. upon all mortgages held by individuals, but not applicable to mortgages held by banks and other money-lending corporations. The tax here proposed is a serious one, and if imposed would plainly discriminate against individual money-lenders and in favor of corporations. This objection, which was strongly urged at a legislative hearing last week, will probably defeat the measure in its present form, and will perhaps defeat it altogether. There is certainly no defensible principle at the basis of any tax on mortgages when the property mortgaged is already taxed to its full value. The existence of the mortgage does not increase the amount of property involved. It simply shows that two people own the property instead of one. To tax both the property and the mortgage means that a heavier tax is put upon property held by debtors than on property that is debt free. The mortgage should be treated as a part interest in the estate mortgaged, and the tax upon the property should be divided between lender and borrower, as the law or the contract may provide.

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Shall Property Vote?

Last year a bill passed the New York Assembly, but was killed in the Senate, which gave suffrage to women taxpayers in towns and villages of the smaller size. It has passed the Assembly again this year, though with a much larger vote against it; what are its prospects in the Senate we are not able to say. It has, however, no philosophical basis. There is something to be said for the doctrine that all women ought to vote, though we do not believe the doctrine true; something for the doctrine that all landowners ought to vote in the district where the land is situated, which is the English practice, though we believe that persons, not property, ought to possess the suffrage; something for the doctrine that a property qualification should be attached to the suffrage, though we think the best qualification is that furnished by a ballot which compels intelligence in the voter. But to give the suffrage on certain questions to certain women who own land and live in smaller towns and villages, and refuse it to other women in such towns, and to like women living in larger places, and to all women on general questions, is to found suffrage on no consistent principle whatever.

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The Canadian Canals

The disproportionate increase in the grain-carrying trade of Canada, as contrasted with that of this country, has for some

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time been a matter of public note. We have now to record the establishment of the carriage of other commodities than grain by Canadian routes, to the prejudice of our own. A line of small steamers has been started between Chicago on the one hand and Hamburg and Liverpool on the other. These steamers will make the entire trip without the unloading of cargo until their destinations are reached. Their consignments will consist of flour, lard, meats, agricultural implements, and lumber. It is also announced that the Carnegie Company will next month send four steamers laden with steel products from Conneaut, the Company's port on Lake Erie, to Europe by way of the Canadian canal. Hitherto these canals have carried principally grain coming from the Northwest, but it is quite a different and certainly a more important thing to divert thither the merchandise of the Middle States. The Canadian canals have a depth of fourteen feet, thus being twice as deep as the Erie Canal, and are being deepened still more to a depth of twenty-one feet. Though the present Canadian canal route is three or four hundred miles shorter to Liverpool than the New York route, the Canadians are not satisfied with this advantage, and are saving several hundreds more by beginning a twenty-one-foot waterway from the Georgian Bay to Montreal, a distance of three hundred and thirty miles, utilizing the Ottawa River for part of the way. Despite our advantage in climate, we can hardly hope to retain canal trade against such odds of depth of water and shorter distance, besides cheaper freight and terminal charges on the entire competing route. The future of the canal trade is with vessels of heavy draught. Realizing this, the Canadian Government has of late spent no less than seventy million dollars in deepening and enlarging canals. By so doing, it has not only diverted much business from our trunk-lines and from the Erie Canal, but it has also benefited our own as well as its farmers and shippers. Liverpool makes the price of cash wheat, and every cent saved on the cost of delivering it means that much more to be paid to the owner of the wheat at the time it is sold and shipped. This factor is gradually opening the eyes of our farmers and shippers to the importance of deep waterways. These facts must be borne in mind in considering the question of canal enlargement within American lines, and also in considering the further question whether such enlargement may not be a National rather than a State enterprise.

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The Threatened Miners' Strike

When the anthracite coal miners' strike was settled during the National campaign last fall, it was recognized that the settlement was not likely to prove permanent. Employers were dissatisfied because concessions had been obtained from them through outside political pressure, and employees were dissatisfied because their right to make agreements through their organization was not recognized. The agreement entered into was to expire April 1, and it was feared from the outset that the strike would be renewed on that date. These fears are now in danger of realization. The miners' union was greatly strengthened in prestige by the partial success of the strike, and during the prosperous winter months has enrolled new members until it now represents almost the whole body of anthracite coal miners. This body has naturally aspired to the same power that the organization of the bituminous coal miners has held for several years—the power to represent all the mine workers at yearly conferences with the representatives of all the mine operators, and to enter into contracts governing all the competing mines. The anthracite operators, however, who are in the main under the control of the coal-carrying roads, are unwilling to make the same concessions that the less powerful bituminous coal operators have made, and have refused to recognize in any way the anthracite miners' union. They have, however, almost universally offered to continue for the present the scale of wages agreed upon last fall. Those who give out statements merely declare that the anthracite operators will not treat with any men "not in their employ." This means, of course, that they will not treat with the salaried officers of the union, who alone are trusted to act as its attorneys. At the convention of the union held in Hazelton the middle of March resolutions were adopted authorizing the National

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officers to negotiate further for a joint conference between miners and operators prior to April first, and, in the event of failure, to "decide by a majority vote the policy of our movement, even if it be necessary to resort to a suspension of work." There is danger that this extreme decision will be made, though the close of the busy winter season makes the time unfavorable to success.

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Inauguration of President Aldeman of Tulane University

The formal inauguration, on March 12, of Dr. Edwin Anderson Aldeman as second President of Tulane University of Louisiana, at New Orleans, was an occasion of marked significance for higher education in the South. The enthusiasm displayed by the people of New Orleans, the attendance of representative educators of prominence from all parts of the United States, and the dignified and inspiring ceremonies themselves, all combined to make the event memorable. In the addresses of congratulation by President Harper, of Chicago University, and by Professor Nicholas Murray Butler, of Columbia, and in President Aldeman's own eloquent and virile inaugural address, the true note of university aspiration and of university leadership was struck. It was plain that it is the hope of the officers and students of Tulane University and its constituent schools and colleges, and the policy of the President and Board of Administrators as well, to build up, not a college merely, but a strong, well-equipped university worthy of a great city which sits at the gateway of the marvelous valley of the Mississippi. Tulane University, as President Aldeman pointed out, "is a compound of the sagacity of the State and the beneficence of the individual. It is, first, the University of the State of Louisiana, established by that State two generations ago, and it is, therefore, an expression of the moral strength of all the people acting collectively for lofty social ends. It is the Tulane University of Louisiana because it has received into its life the generosity of Paul Tulane and the munificence of Ida A. Richardson, Louise Warren Newcomb, Caroline Tilton, and other generous donors. It stands, therefore, as a monument to the high aims of the democratic State, and to that spiritual earnestness and individual responsibility to society which are the most significant facts of the nineteenth century in our National life." Dr. Aldeman, who succeeds the lamented William Preston Johnston in the presidency of Tulane, is a native of North Carolina, and not yet forty years of age. He graduated from the University of North Carolina in 1882, and his advancement has been very rapid. He was chosen President of the University of North Carolina in 1896, and served as such until 1900, leaving behind him a brilliant record of unqualified success. He is an eloquent orator and an administrator of marked capacity. There is every reason for confidence that under his leadership Tulane University will enter upon a new career of prosperity and of usefulness.

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Dr. Ament Again

The past week has been an interesting one for Dr. Ament and his friends. At the beginning of the week, the missionary himself reported that the Germans had visited the prosperous market town of Nanming, sixty miles from Peking, and had completely looted it; that they had also ransacked and desecrated a native Christian chapel, had despoiled women of their trinkets, even taking rings out of their ears, and had generally ill-treated the natives. As regards the question of indemnity, upon which Dr. Ament had been unjustly criticised, it is interesting to have the testimony of Mr. Rockhill, American Special Agent in China. He says that, under the arrangement agreed upon, individual American claims will be paid in almost every case, and that he considers the arrangements satisfactory and fair both to Chinese and to foreigners. The Missionary Association at Peking, in its meeting last week, unanimously voted to telegraph a demand to the "North American Review" that Mr. Clemens (Mark Twain) recant his libelous attack in that magazine on Dr. Ament. The text of the article has now reached China, and is regarded by some prejudiced natives, so the despatches say, as "brave, generous, honorable." On the other hand, the Peking Missionary Association expressed its indignant surprise that such a man

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and such a paper should thus slander Dr. Ament without examining into the facts. The following action was taken: "*Resolved*, That Dr. Ament and Mr. Tewksbury were justified in following the advice of the United States Minister and selling the movable property in the Taupulofu and the Yuwangfu for the benefit of the distressed Chinese refugees, and for the extraordinary expenses after the siege was raised; and that any sums remaining on hand should be used for like purposes in accordance with the advice of the mission." The Rev. Arthur H. Smith, The Outlook's Special Commissioner in China, was present, and said: "The vote ought to be made widely known wherever ignorant libels of travelers have been current. Something had to be done, and these men had energy and courage to go ahead and do it." Dr. Ament has now left Peking for the United States. A large party of Chinese accompanied him to the railway station.

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Kansas Temperance Matters The jury selected to try Mrs. Nation in what was thought to be a test case disagreed, a small majority voting that she had violated the laws. Since this disagreement we have seen no record of further trials. The Kansas Legislature, before it adjourned, passed a law classing as nuisances all places in which liquor is illegally sold, and making the possession of intoxicating liquor in any room connected with a place of business *prima facie* evidence of guilt, and also the possession of a United States internal revenue license *prima facie* evidence. As few liquor-dealers dare risk the penalties involved in selling without an internal revenue license, it is believed that the new law will greatly facilitate the suppression of the saloons. The despatch to the Chicago "Times-Herald" reporting this enactment made this pertinent comment: "If a county attorney, with this law at his back, does not enforce the law in a fairly thorough manner, it will be simply because he has made up his mind to violate his oath of office. In that case the Attorney-General is empowered to appoint an assistant Attorney-General to take charge of all prosecutions." Whether the passage of this law is in any degree to be credited to Mrs. Nation's work in arousing public sentiment cannot be demonstrated. The only thing certain is that both the fanatical methods employed by Mrs. Nation and the rational methods enjoined by the Legislature grew out of the strong anti-saloon sentiment which dominates the State. A striking statement of the strength of that sentiment from a prominent Topeka lawyer will be found elsewhere in this issue.

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Archbishop Chapelle and the Filipino Friars Two important despatches have appeared concerning the Filipino friars. The first purports to be an interview with Archbishop Chapelle, who says that "it is desirable to bring in American priests as soon as possible," and that his mission is "to reorganize Church affairs on American lines." Of course, friars and priests alike may no longer expect direct State aid as under Spanish sovereignty; a voluntary system must now be instituted. Naturally, not only as a Roman Catholic prelate, but as an American citizen, Archbishop Chapelle wishes to retain for the service of the Church whatever of knowledge and experience may be found among the best friars, and it must be a great deal. As he said some time ago: "Whatever the natives are or have, they owe to the friars. By them they were lifted out of savagery and brought under the blessed and refining influences of Christianity. By them they were educated, not only in the schools, but in the fields and the workshops, and were taught the very industries which are now the source of their prosperity." It is to be hoped that all the monks may consent to secularization, and the best of them to the secularization involved in a dispensation from monastic vows, becoming, if possible, members of what the Roman Catholics call "secular clergy"—that is, priests not subject to the rules of religious communities and orders. The second despatch to which we refer would indicate that this is also Archbishop Chapelle's idea; certainly it is in line with the recommendations of the Taft Commission. No longer landlords and magistrates, the friars would themselves see that a restriction to purely priestly func-

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tions, with a continuance of whatever moral and helpful influence the friars still have, would be preferable to expatriation from a country and people whose conditions and needs they know so intimately. Though nothing is said on the subject, we incline to the opinion that the Papal consent has already been obtained for the proposed change; it would be in line with the broad and enlightened policy of Leo XIII. regarding matters outside Italy. The property of the friars, however, involves another and distinct question. While Archbishop Chapelle may agree with the Taft Commission as to secularization, when the question of property comes up for settlement he will probably seek to secure for the rights of the friars as large a price as possible.

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A Million for Methodism in New York

There is a stimulating audacity in the undertaking upon which the Methodists of the Boroughs of Manhattan and the Bronx, New York City, are now entering. Their venture is the raising of a Thank-Offering Fund of a million dollars in the next two years to signalize the opening of the twentieth century. Of this amount seven hundred thousand dollars will be applied to the removal of the mortgage indebtedness now resting upon the church property, and one hundred thousand dollars each to the Deaconess Home and Training-School, St. Christopher's Home for Destitute Children, and the vested funds held by the Trustees of the Conferences for the benefit of the superannuated preachers, or the widows and orphans of those who have died in the service. When it is remembered that relative to some other denominations in this city and to their own forces elsewhere, New York Methodism can claim neither large numbers nor great resources, there will seem to be something heroic in this enterprise. The Rev. E. S. Tipple, D.D., has been appointed Executive Secretary of the Commission by which the whole movement is being directed. A central fund will receive all undesignated gifts, while provision is made for the utmost individual liberty where donors prefer to give special direction to their contributions. One special object is the larger equipment of the Deaconess Home and Training-School. For over twelve years the two departments of Methodist deaconess work in New York—the Home for the Deaconesses themselves and the Training-School for students and candidates—have been developing slowly into strength, until a permanent location with larger facilities has become imperative. Property has been bought at Eighty-sixth Street and Madison Avenue (for some years occupied as the Christian Home for Intemperate Men) at a cost of ninety-five thousand dollars. The building will accommodate one hundred persons. So strongly has the deaconess idea taken hold of the Methodist community that no advance step has been more warmly approved than the purchase of this valuable property. It is stated that to supplement a fund of twenty-five thousand dollars, held in trust for such an opportunity as the present, four friends of the work will contribute ten thousand dollars each; another, five thousand dollars; and it is confidently expected by the promoters of the plan that the entire cost will be met when the title shall be taken, a few weeks hence. There is in this event an evidence of confidence and a purpose of permanency which should strengthen the courage of all the religious forces in our city.

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A Remarkable Find of Greek Statues

According to Lucan's "Zeuxis," a ship loaded with splendid examples of the work of the finest Greek sculptors, some coming from the Temple of Delphi itself, was on its way to Rome, where the spoils were perhaps to grace some Emperor's triumph, when it foundered near Cape Malea and on the coast of the island of Antikythera. There is hardly a particle of doubt that this is the very ship which has lately been discovered accidentally by sponge-fishers, who reported finding many bronze and marble statues embedded in the sand south of Cape Malea. Already many fragments and a few almost complete works have been brought to the surface, and archæologists and lovers of ancient art look forward to a rare yield of perhaps almost priceless treasures. Two statues already found are described as worthy of comparison with the very best existing specimens of Greek

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art. One is a Hermes in bronze, a little over life size and not seriously injured; it is believed to be an original, not a copy, and it is quite possible that it may have come from the hand of Praxiteles. Another fairly well preserved statue is in marble, and is described by Professor Rufus B. Richardson, of the American School of Classical Studies in Athens, in an article written for the "Independent," as "the figure of a youth about the size of the Ægina gable figures, bending forward with an intensity far surpassing that of the 'Wrestlers' in the Naples Museum. It may be that this youth is also to be thought of as a wrestler intent on grappling with his antagonist. Some are disposed to think of him as gazing intently into the distance. At any rate, the intense muscular strain of the right shoulder and the adjacent parts of the back and side is wonderfully portrayed." Professor Richardson adds: "One of the most impressive parts of the collection is a row of bronze feet and a pile of bronze arms, which show that much more is still lying at the bottom of the sea. In fact, the divers are reported as saying all along that there were great and heavy bodies that they could not bring to the surface. But we shall have them ultimately." Two other recent discoveries have interested archæologists greatly: in the new excavations at the Roman Forum has been found a fragment of an ancient marble map of Rome containing a plan of the Pantheon before Vespasian's time; at Pompeii has been found the skeleton of a man, perhaps a plunderer, who was trying to escape with a bundle containing a silver stew-pan and many other curious articles and coins.

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The Theater Perhaps no form of art has been so much neglected in America as the drama. As The Outlook has repeatedly indicated, with all our boasted civilization we have not yet grasped the real influence of the theater as an educational institution; as such it ranks with the church and the school. Nor shall we realize that influence until we rid ourselves of the "star system," instituting instead a "stock system," which ought to develop a race of American actors as talented and certainly as versatile as any in the world. We might go further and say that a proper influence will hardly be forthcoming until the stage is subsidized by either public or private endowment. The most important national theater abroad is the Théâtre Français, and its influence in maintaining the highest standards both of literature and of the drama has been inestimable. As a school for acting, its stock system leads the world, as it should, for in it there is abundant realization of the effort to make every part equally perfect; indeed, one often finds eminent actors playing small and menial rôles. In educational excellence, next to the Théâtre Français stands the Vienna Burg Theater. Its company, like that of the Paris establishment, includes between fifty and a hundred actors, but it excels the Théâtre Français in its admirable scenic appointments. Perhaps Americans are most familiar, however, with the subsidized theaters of Germany. The gift of actual money ranges from two thousand to fifty thousand dollars a year, together with the gift of the ground and lighting. The contract compels the manager to produce each week several different plays and each season a dozen dramas not previously produced and a specified number of plays from classic authors, such as Shakespeare, Schiller, Goethe, Lessing, Molière. In this country the only attempt by any manager which has yet been made to imitate this contract in its entirety, so far as his part is concerned, has been by Herr Conried, director of the Irving Place Theater, New York City, a German institution which deserves the support of those who are interested in the development of the drama.

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Church Membership A new basis of church membership has been established by Dr. Macfarland, the pastor, and his advisers in the Maplewood Congregational Church of Malden, Mass. The first change provides for the enrollment of all baptized children upon the membership book of the church. The new article reads as follows, and might well be imitated in other churches: "Children baptized by the church shall be enrolled as members, with the understanding that such relation shall be continued until they indicate a desire either for a

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formal acceptance or for a dissolution of the relation. The list of such members shall be kept distinct from that of the adult members, but they shall be considered as members under the care of the church. This list . . . shall also include those previously baptized elsewhere who shall be presented by their parents." Secondly, regarding the admission of all candidates, in place of the old clause charging the church committee with the examination of such candidates, a new rule establishes all examinations of the candidate as a private matter and in the hands of the pastor. Thirdly, in place of the old and detailed confession of faith a new and simpler basis of membership has been adopted, as follows:

I believe in God, the loving Father of the race.

I believe in the universal brotherhood of man, as taught by Jesus Christ.

I believe in Jesus Christ as the Supreme Revealer of divine character, as the moral and religious Teacher, the spiritual Guide, and the Redeemer of men.

In uniting with this church, I promise to give myself to its service, to work for its upbuilding, and to walk with all its members and with all men in a spirit of charity and faithfulness.

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The President's Opportunity

It is rarely safe to attempt a final estimate of any man while he is living; but we may legitimately attempt an estimate of Mr. McKinley's first term, for the purpose of indicating what the country has a reasonable right to demand of his administration in the second term. Says Edmund Burke: "The temper of the people amongst whom he presides ought to be the first study of a statesman." That Mr. McKinley has studied the temper of the American people is the testimony of his severest critics; that he has followed that temper too faithfully and led it too little is the greatest fault which his supporters perceive in him; that he has truly interpreted and effectively executed it will be, we think, the judgment of history.

It was not until the revelations of Senator Proctor and the destruction of the Maine combined to arouse in the American people a temper which could not be resisted that the President consented to the war against Spain. That temper he truly interpreted in demanding the end of Spanish authority, not only in Cuba and Porto Rico, but in the Philippines, which what are called the chances of war had brought under our control. That temper he has truly interpreted in insisting that we cannot avoid or evade the responsibilities laid upon us by the results of the war; that we cannot leave Cuba without adequate guaranties that her independence and liberties, won at such a cost, shall not be recklessly sacrificed to ignorance, incompetence, greed, or ambition; nor leave the Philippines until we have seen a stable government there established, which is competent to protect persons and property, one for the results of whose administration we shall not be unwilling to be held morally responsible before the world. That he has in this critical period truly interpreted the temper of the American people in these respects is demonstrated by the unanimous appropriation of fifty millions of dollars to carry on the war, by the practically unanimous support given by Congress to the guaranties demanded of Cuba, and by the platform of the Democratic party in the late campaign, which differed from the Republican platform respecting the Philippines only in promising beforehand independence whenever such a government as we are satisfied with shall be established.

But if the President has truly interpreted the temper of the American people, it is also true that he has failed to inspire and lead the American people as one who occupied his position and possessed his political wisdom might have done. The war with Spain was, in our judgment, inevitable, for no diplomacy could have secured the independence of Cuba; but greater initiative on the part of the Executive might have prevented the insulting form of the Congressional declaration which brought on the war. It was inevitable that the organization of an army adequate for the work we had undertaken should be accompanied by errors and even by corruption; but the Executive might have saved the country from the incompetence in military administration that characterized its opening scenes. The demands we have made on Cuba for guaranties are mainly just; but if the Admin-

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istration had formulated and presented them to the Cuban people before the Constitutional Convention was assembled, as the Executive's understanding of what America would demand, the Convention would have convened prepared to meet these demands, and something of the misunderstanding between the two countries might have been avoided. The maintenance of our sovereignty in the Philippines is a sacred duty which we could not evade without dishonor; but the President might a year ago have called on Congress, by an emergency message, to make some provision for the substitution of civil for military law in the islands—a provision which would probably have avoided much bloodshed.

The past is past, and we criticise it only that we may lay greater emphasis on the duties of the future. What the country wants of the President is all the caution in dealing with other powers which he has shown in the past, but greater courage in dealing with political forces at home. It wants him, not only to study the temper of the American people, but to do something to create the right temper; not only to interpret the will of the American people, but to do more than he has done to form that will to righteous ends. To illustrate:

There is no doubt that some intolerable cruelties have been perpetrated in the Philippines under the apparent sanction of American arms and American officers. That the accounts of the killing of the wounded and of prisoners have been greatly exaggerated we do not doubt; that the water torture has been used only by Macabebe scouts is possible; that the aggravation of American soldiers suffering from ambuscades and assassinations in violation of all laws of war has been great is undoubted; that the stories of drunkenness and licentiousness have been magnified out of all proportion to the facts is certain; that, on the whole, the American army in the Philippines has been more just, more honorable, and more orderly, as it has been in China, than armies of occupation usually are in dealing with a foreign and half-civilized foe, is attested by disinterested witnesses. None the less, the American people have a right to demand of the Commander-in-Chief of the army that such orders be issued as shall relieve the American Nation from appearing to acquiesce in brutality and vice. That either can be absolutely stopped by a general order is not probable; but they can be disavowed, and, when discovered, punished. And it should be remembered that not Congress but the President is responsible for any act of military excess which it is possible to prevent by the most determined resolve of the Commander-in-Chief and the most rigorous discipline enforcing it.

Are the Philippines to be held by us as a solemn, sacred trust for their inhabitants, or are they to be regarded by us as a field for greed and plunder? We have no doubt what answer the President would give to this question. He alone cannot answer it; and yet the answer depends more upon him than upon any other one American. Nor can his answer be given by the expression of noble sentiments couched in fine phrases in public speeches. His answer can be given only in his appointments. He may make such appointments, or, by resigning his constitutional functions, he may allow Congressmen to make such appointments, as will turn the Philippines for a time into a field for loot, much as were the East Indies under the East India Company. Or, learning a lesson from England's history, he can from the first adopt a system of appointments which will save the Filipinos from robbery and America from disgrace. And he is the only one who can do this. We do not insist on any special method of appointment. We do not seek to impose a particular scheme of civil service as a panacea for political corruption. But we believe that the temper of the American people demands that in all appointments to foreign service the principle be rigorously applied—A public office is a public trust. This principle has not been rigorously applied in dealing with the Indians. The temper of the office-seeking and office-holding bureaucracy does not demand it in dealing with the Philippines. But it is the duty of the statesman to study the temper of the people, not of the bureaucracy; and the temper of the American people is one which demands public integrity in dealing with a foreign and dependent community.

Both the Philippine Commissions have

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pointed out the way in which to deal with the problem presented by the fact that such large sections of land are held by the friars. This is to purchase these lands, by condemnatory proceedings if necessary, and sell them on favorable terms to the Filipinos. That this plan will solve the problem with satisfaction in the Philippines is reasonably certain; but that it will meet with some vigorous opposition at home is probable. Some violent Protestants will denounce any scheme which proposes to give money to the Church of Rome or to any of its adherents; some Romanists will object to any scheme which appears to weaken the power of the Roman Church or of any of its adherents in the islands; some politicians will oppose any scheme for the expenditure of public moneys which does not promise an immediate return to private beneficiaries—they will prefer to expend millions in ship subsidies rather than thousands on a plan for securing justice and peace to a foreign colony; some conservatives, who believe that nothing can be done in the future which has not been done in the past, will oppose this plan because there are no precedents for it. But the bulk of the American people care more for justice than they do for precedents, or for private gains by favored classes, or for denominational aggrandizement. The President can give to this plan of the two Commissions which he has appointed the indorsement and support of the Administration; he can give it to be understood that he makes it his own plan; he can urge it by special message on Congress. And those who wish to see the Philippines relieved of their Old Man of the Sea, which is not the Roman Catholic Church, but the friar landlords, will give to him their hearty support in this plan, or in any better plan if he has a better one to suggest. What Mr. McKinley's friends fear is that he will let the matter drift until the returning friars and the development of factions have made it more difficult of solution; what they hope is that he will now give the weight of his authority to this or to some solution of the Philippine land problem which will give to the Filipinos peace and to America honor.

The President has an opportunity which has rarely been given to any previous President of the United States. He has in a large degree the confidence of his party, and to an unusual degree the confidence of those who are not of his party. The questions presented by the successful termination of the war with Spain are far greater and more complex than those presented by the war itself. The American people cannot spontaneously evolve the correct methods of dealing with such problems; they can only discuss and pass judgment on such plans as are proposed to them. They look to the President and his advisers to be their leaders in the solution of these problems. Has he the initiative and the courage necessary for such leadership? This is the question which his present term of office is to answer.

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A Challenge Answered

In The Outlook for March 16 we called attention to what we believe to be a very incorrect interpretation of the action of Congress, in what is known as the Platt amendment concerning Cuba, made by the Chicago "Times-Herald." What our own interpretation of this Congressional action is, our readers know sufficiently well from the editorials in our columns. In a reply to our criticisms of its attitude the Chicago "Times-Herald" prints the following:

> The "Times-Herald" challenges The Outlook to print, over the signature of Lyman Abbott, the simple, direct sentence: "I believe that the Platt amendment to the Army Bill is not a violation of the sacred pledge of the joint resolution of April 20, 1898."

The day of issuing and accepting personal challenges among intelligent men is past. Moreover, we are not in the habit of permitting others, whether they may be friendly or unfriendly critics, to dictate the language in which we shall express our convictions. While the editor of The Outlook is no more interested in or in favor of newspaper dueling than any other sort of personal conflict, he has sent the following letter to the "Times-Herald," in which he has stated briefly his personal views in reply to its demand:

March 23, 1901.

Editor of the Chicago "Times-Herald," Chicago, Illinois:

Dear Sir—In your issue of March 18 you challenge The Outlook "to print, over the

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signature of Lyman Abbott, the simple, direct sentence: 'I believe that the Platt amendment to the Army Bill is not a violation of the sacred pledge of the joint resolution of April 20, 1898.'"

I beg leave to ask room in your columns to answer this question directly to your readers.

(1) The demand of naval stations from Cuba is, in my judgment, a violation of that pledge, as The Outlook has on several occasions stated. We should have a right to ask for such naval stations; gratitude would require of Cuba that the request should be granted; but we have no right to demand it as a condition of withdrawing our forces from Cuba.

(2) The first, second, and third demands—namely, that the government of Cuba shall agree by treaty with us not to impair her independence by selling any part of her territory to a foreign power, nor by incurring a debt which she has not the means to pay, and that she shall consent that we may intervene to defend her independence from assault either by foreign or domestic foe—are not only not a violation of the pledge of April 20, 1898, but are necessary to enable us adequately to fulfill that pledge.

(3) The demands that Cuba shall agree that all lawful rights acquired under our occupation shall be maintained, and that adequate sanitation of her cities shall be effected, are demands necessary for our own protection, and such as we should have a right to enforce, if necessary, upon Cuba or upon any other free and independent power occupying the same territory.

(4) The reference of a disputed boundary question between Cuba and the United States to future diplomacy is the only proper course to be pursued respecting that question.

I believe this adequately answers your challenge. May I add that, in my judgment, your summary of the Platt amendment is radically and intrinsically wrong; that the amendment calls for no supervision of Cuba's foreign treaties, for no control of Cuba's finances, and for no further right of intervention than is necessary to preserve for Cuba the independence which we guaranteed her?

Yours respectfully,
LYMAN ABBOTT.

Reference to what The Outlook has previously said on the Cuban question will show that we have criticised certain provisions of the Platt amendment; but we are of the unshaken conviction that a careful study of that amendment, as printed in the "Congressional Record," will indicate to the thoughtful and intelligent reader that the purpose of this Government is not to control the government of Cuba or to undermine its independence, but to secure that independence and to provide a basis of relationship with our own Government which shall be as safe and permanent for Cuba as for the United States.

Twentieth Century Creeds

It is interesting to observe how, in any given epoch, the same intellectual results are arrived at by independent thinkers moving by different courses of thought, though quite unconsciously, to the same end, so that, to one not familiar with this phenomenon, it would almost appear that they had co-operated with one another, or one had borrowed from the other's thought. This fact is illustrated by three recent publications—Dr. Bradford's "The Age of Faith," Dr. George A. Gordon's "An Epoch for Faith" (to both of which volumes we have recently called attention editorially), and now by a little pamphlet by Dr. McGiffert, an address delivered by him before the Westminster Presbyterian Club of Buffalo on "The Problem of Christian Creeds as Affected by Modern Thought." Without attempting to follow exactly the line of thought in this significant address or reporting it in detail, we here attempt to interpret its spirit in our own language.

This is not an age of skepticism; it is an age of enlarged faith. Its unbelief in the creeds of the past is due to the fact, not that they contain too much, but that they contain too little. They are too narrow, too exclusive, too polemical, too scholastic, for this broader, more catholic, more irenic, more spiritual age. This enlarged and more spiritual faith is seen in two important aspects of religious thought: belief in a Great First Cause, remote in time and operating in the world through secondary causes and occasional personal interferences, has given place to belief in the immanence of a perpetually present God, the underlying and ever-operative cause in all phenomena; and the conception of God as the Absolute or the Infinite, "a spirit infinite, eternal, and unchangeable in his being, wisdom, power, holiness, and truth," has given place to a conception of God as "our Father which art in heaven."

These changes are not sudden products of modern thought; they are not contributions to our thinking by a few theologians of a new school; they are not backward steps toward the Deism of the eighteenth century; they are the products of two centuries of intellectual and spiritual growth. The first is a product of

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the scientific thought of the nineteenth century, which has compelled us to see the same Infinite and Eternal Energy working in all parts of the universe and in all cycles of time; the second is the product of the humane development of the eighteenth century, which has carried with it a new conception of man as representing a divine ideal, and so a new conception of God as represented to us in the highest types of human life and character.

This broader and deeper faith—faith in a God ever and always present, faith in a God interpreted to us by the divine in humanity, and therefore pre-eminently interpreted to us by Jesus Christ, God manifest in a human life—necessitates a new utterance of faith. The old utterances no longer serve, because they are too narrow and too shallow, too exclusive and too unspiritual. We want a new creed or new creeds, not because we have lost our faith, but because we have a broader and a better faith. The old no longer serves as a test, because it limits the life of to-day by the less Christian and the less spiritual life of a scholastic age. It no longer serves as a testimony, because it does not truly represent what the Church of to-day truly believes, and because it represents less, not more, than the Church believes. It no longer serves as an instrument for education, because we ought to teach our children the larger and better faith which we ourselves possess; the creed and catechism are not used as they once were, because they cannot be so used. No mere revision of the old creeds will serve, because what we need to do is not to correct erroneous or misleading phrases, to erase a sentence or a clause here, or add a sentence or a clause there; our whole conception of God as an eternally present Father, in all human history, with all peoples, in all lives, and seeking the redemption of all souls, is radically inconsistent with the narrower conception of a God manifesting himself to one people only, in one epoch only, revealing himself through secondary agents only, and seeking only the redemption of an elect few.

Nor can we dispense with all creeds. We need the creed as a testimony by the Church to its belief. This ought not to be left merely to be borne by individual preachers in their sermons. There is a unity of faith in the Christian Church which underlies and manifests itself in and through all variations of utterances, and this unity of faith ought to have expression. We need the creed as an instrument of education, a means for teaching systematically to our children the faith of the Church, which now they only pick up in fragments from sermon or Sunday-school teaching, or do not get at all. We need the creed because all serious thinking must necessarily issue in some result, and this result of thinking is a creed. Thinking without a purpose, thinking without a result, thinking which is always asking questions and never getting or even seeking to get a definite answer, scarcely deserves the name of thinking; it demoralizes, vitiates, disintegrates.

Our readers must not hold Dr. McGiffert responsible for our interpretation of his admirable address. We wish the address were published and could be widely circulated. In the main The Outlook is in hearty sympathy with it. We quite agree with him that the old creeds are inadequate, because the Church of to-day believes too much and too profoundly to accept them as the expression of its faith; because they are too unspiritual for this more spiritual age. We quite agree with him that no revision will or can render them adequate to express the spiritual life of the present age. We quite agree with him that the value of creeds as a testimony and as an instrument for education is very great; it would be difficult to estimate the spiritual effect on the worshipers in the Episcopal Church of the repetition every Sunday of the Apostles' Creed, with its simple affirmation of the historic facts of primitive Christianity and the fundamental facts of vital Christianity. But we are not quite sure that the time has yet come for the formulation of a new creed. We doubt whether the Church has yet gotten far enough away from the scholastic and polemical spirit to frame a new creed. We doubt whether it has yet thought out sufficiently the meaning of the immanence of God and the Fatherhood of God to give expression to its thought in a formulary of faith. We are inclined to believe that there is still a good deal of work to be done in interpreting the spiritual life of the age by the

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Bradfords, the Gordons, and the McGifferts of our time, before the Church as a body is ready to speak. Meanwhile, we can continue to use the Apostolic Creed, framed before scholasticism and denominationalism had corrupted and disintegrated the faith of the Church; and we can recognize with gladness and hope that the increasing dissatisfaction with the creeds of the sixteenth century is due, not to a failing and feeble faith, but to a growing and stalwart faith, which, because it is larger and more spiritual, cannot content itself with the utterances of an earlier and less mature age.

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Harmony with the Highest

No passages in the New Testament are more remarkable than those in which Christ affirms without qualification his harmony with the Father. "I and my Father are one" is perhaps the most striking declaration that ever fell from the lips of a man; and this man was the most distinct personality in history. Among all the men of genius, of executive force, of energy, of achievement, he is unique. He was in perfect harmony with the world about him, so far as that world was righteous, yet entirely lifted above it. A member of a race possessed of the most intense race-consciousness, with race characteristics which have proved to be ineffaceable, he lived, apparently without effort, far above the atmosphere of race-antagonisms. In a country isolated by its own sentiment and conviction from the world of the time, he disregarded all physical boundaries and divisions; born into the most exclusive religious body, he was indifferent to religious distinctions; immersed in traditionalism and ritualism, he interpreted religion in terms of universal spiritual need and experience. No man understood his own people and time so well; no man was so completely separated from all that was temporal and provisional in his people and time.

If one studies the psychology of Christ, it is clear that his universality was not secured by effacing his individuality, but by giving it the richest and fullest development. There is in every personality a native, original, creative power, the only creative power in the world; the power which fashions all great works of art and discovers all great truths; but this power is largely shaped and educated, if not actually directed, by that group of influences which we call environment. The finer a man's genius and the more sensitive his temperament, the greater will be the impress of that environment upon him. So the works of the poets and painters bear on their surface the color of the sky about them. Theocritus gives us the atmosphere of Sicily; Wordsworth, the rolling mists and silence of the Northumberland vales; Whittier, the sweetness of New England; Tennyson, the ripe and tender beauty of eastern and southern England.

One must first get into sympathetic union with one's environment in order to add the charm and richness of that environment to his own personality. It was this beautiful spiritual alliance between Tennyson and the lovely landscape about him which made him such an exquisite painter of English scenery. But he did not rest in the little actual world which he touched and which he saw; he entered sympathetically into the larger world of the greater England, the men of his time, the life of his race, and so he became the spokesman of that race—a mirror of its deeper experiences. He did not stop, however, even on the limits of this larger world; he entered, as Dante had done before him, into the universal spiritual experience; he came into touch with fundamental ideas; he reached the end of his quest, and on the furthest limits of man's knowledge and divination he found God; and so he became a prophet as well as a poet. His personality expanded with the widening of his interests and the deepening of his life; it is greatest when his work has the largest scope, as in "In Memoriam," the poem in which he travels furthest from the place of his birth and comes to most complete self-knowledge.

In like manner, as we read the story of the Master, he passes through all the circles of experience, step by step and stage by stage, until he comes into full and shadowless consciousness of God. With every advance his spirit was in harmony with a larger environment; at the last step he came into harmony with the ultimate environment of man's life—that is to say, with the mind of God—and he

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could say with absolute truth, "I and my Father are one."

The first step towards this fundamental harmony is obedience to the laws of life. Christ obeyed; through obedience he became free. Beyond the region of freedom he reached the sphere of inspiration; the life of God breathed through him. It is this harmony with the whole range of the spiritual life of the world which gives him his marvelous insight, and which, entirely apart from the authority of the Divine Spirit which spoke through him, gives him a right to speak on the ultimate value and meaning of life. Most men fail in judgment of the world because they do not put themselves in the way of understanding it. No man can understand it until, through obedience to its laws, he has fitted himself to be an observer of its highest life. Great scientific observers are as rare as men of genius; and only those who are familiar at first hand with the conditions which make an observer know what sureness of hand, what steadiness of will, what delicacy and accuracy of vision, are required in the making of a great student of nature. A great observer must be in such harmony with the order of nature that every sense instantly responds to the most delicate impression. This is true in the mastery of the arts. An expert pianist must guard his hand from everything which diminishes its perfect flexibility and sensitiveness. A great singer not only protects the voice, but cares with rigid exactness for the body. Every great singer is always in training; for the body is to the voice what the body of the violin is to the strings—determining its resonance and quality. In like manner the man or woman who aspires to master the knowledge of life and to interpret it must keep the soul in such perfect moral condition that it registers the finest vibrations and responds to the most subtle influences.

Moral insight is largely a matter of culture. Art means nothing to the savage; to the sensualist the types of purity which the higher mind of the world almost worships seem purely visionary; to the illiterate the great books of the world are as if they had not been written; to the man of vulgar spirit and cheap aims Sir Philip Sidney's career has no fascination; to the mercenary politician the life of Mr. Curtis makes no appeal. They only have a right to judge of the value of life and its significance who have made themselves experts by reason of spiritual purity; who have learned the delicate art of observation by cultivating themselves in character to see the finest and to know the best. For the power to believe in the highest and the best is not primarily intellectual, but moral. Men do not believe because they are not good enough to believe. No man can admire nobility unless there is a touch of nobility in his own nature; and he who would believe in God must cultivate himself for belief by moral preparation.

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A Correction Corrected

If Mr. George Kennan were a soldier, he would never make the stupid mistake of assuming that because our army returns show that 3,227 Tagalogs were killed and only 694 wounded in the Philippines in the ten months ending November 8, 1900, it was the American practice to butcher wounded prisoners in cold blood. The wounded enemies that appear in our army returns are relatively few in number as compared with the killed, for the simple reason that the Tagalogs generally run away in time to remove their stricken comrades who are still living, and leave only the dead upon the field.—*Boston Journal*, March 18.

Mr. Kennan did not say that "it was the American practice to butcher the wounded prisoners in cold blood." He gave the actual proportions of killed and wounded in the case of the Filipinos, said that "the irresistible conclusion is that we increased the number of killed by putting to death the wounded," but added, with his usual caution: "If there be any other explanation of the figures, it has not been suggested to me, and no other explanation suggests itself." We are very glad to give prominence to the Boston "Journal's" explanation. Unfortunately, there appears to be some testimony in private letters from soldiers, which have found their way to the public prints, that in some cases the wounded and even prisoners have been put to death. That this has been exceptional, and due probably to that passion which sometimes amounts to an insanity on the battlefield, not a practice nor perpetrated in cold blood, we think is very certain. There is, however, sufficient evidence to justify, as it appears to us, an official investigation.

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Phillips Brooks

After Reading his Life by A. V. G. Allen

By John White Chadwick

Here was a man cast in such generous mold
  Of body, brain, and conscience, heart and soul,
That if till now we never had been told
  Of an eternal life and perfect goal
Beyond the verge of this our mortal space,
  Straightway of such we should conceive, and dare
Believe it builded in God's boundless grace
  After this man's great fashion, high and fair.

We could not make him dead; and if for him
  That fuller life were stablished and secure,
Then for all souls however fallen, and dim
  With soil and stain, it could not be less sure:
For he no joy in heaven's height could find
Save as he shared it with all humankind.

A Winter's Tale of Allen and Brooks

By William R. Huntington

Read at the dinner given to the Rev. Dr. A. V. G. Allen by the Clericus Club, to commemorate the completion of his Life of Phillips Brooks, Boston, January 7, 1901.

I.

When Michelangelo the great
  His Moses wrought of stone,
The perfect image seemed to wait
  One gift and one alone.

II.

"Speak!" said the master. No reply
  The marbled silence broke.
"Speak!" but the half-indignant cry
  No tell-tale echo woke.

III.

"Speak!" For a moment poised in air
  The trembling chisel hung;
Then at the statue, full and fair,
  His weapon-tool he flung.

IV.

A happier fortune, Allen, thine;
  A defter artist thou;
Not only skilled to match the line
  Of molded mouth and brow;

V.

Not only masterful to tell
  What only spirits knew,
And make the image wield the spell
  The living presence threw,

VI.

But bold to touch the lips which slept,
  And charm them to let flow
The torrent-rush that from them leapt
  In loved years long ago.

VII.

A torrent-rush, yet crystal-clear
  As sunlight washed by rain.
O Death, but it is good to hear
  That silvery voice again!

VIII.

So, first of artists, here's to thee!
  Thy Winter's Tale we praise,
As his who waked Hermione,
  In old Sicilian days.

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The Making of a Great Preacher[1]

By Lyman Abbott

PHILLIPS BROOKS has in his note-book defined the perfect autobiography: "To make a perfect biography, a man's own self-knowledge ought to be united to a stranger's calm, impartial, disinterested judgment—a thing not likely to be seen on earth." Dr. Allen's biography of Phillips Brooks does not come up to this standard. The author's knowledge of his subject is extraordinary; his insight into the mystery of Phillips Brooks's genius is itself genius; but his judgment, though calm, is not impartial. His admiration for the subject of his biography is too great; his portrait resembles a photograph in which all the lines of life have been smoothed away. Some portrait-painters, it has been said, portray their characters, some idealize them, some satirize them. Dr. Allen has not exactly idealized the character of Phillips Brooks, but he has painted it with a halo about the head. To this enthusiasm for one whose distinctive characteristic it always was to arouse enthusiasm in all with whom he came in contact is probably due the size of the work. Two large volumes—one of six hundred and fifty pages, the other of nine hundred and fifty pages—are too much for most of us in this busy world to devote to any one man, however great he may have been. Dr. Allen has been embarrassed by his riches. He has not known how to omit; we can readily see that it would be almost impossible to omit. Nothing that he has given us from Phillips Brooks's letters and note-books would we willingly lose. And yet sixteen hundred pages to the life of one man are too many, and the cost of the work puts it beyond the means of most of the clergy, who are the ones who need it most.

But, making all allowances, we must still characterize this as the biography of a genius by a genius. Dr. Allen has shown heretofore remarkable keenness of spiritual vision. His "Continuity of Christian Thought" is more than a history of doctrine; in it the inner life of thinkers is remarkably, though incidentally, portrayed. In his "Life of Jonathan Edwards" the mystical character of that poet-theologian is brought out as in no other biography of him with which we are acquainted. Dr. Allen sees the soul behind the man, and enables his reader to share something of his sight. It is this power of vision which gives to this life of Phillips Brooks its peculiar value. And if there was ever a man whose inner life was hard to discern, it was Phillips Brooks; he hid it behind an impenetrable reserve. Less than any other eminent man we have ever known did he talk about himself. He had a more than feminine shyness. He would never reveal himself in private; and yet in public speech he was continually revealing himself. "I am sure that we have all experienced," or "I am sure that we have all felt," was a not uncommon phrase in his public ministry. And there followed what might be a revelation to the hearer of his own subconscious self, but what was certainly a revelation of the half-conscious self of the speaker. This, we think, is as near as Dr. Brooks ever came to speaking of his own life. His letters and even his diaries are impersonal. Nevertheless, Dr. Allen has succeeded in piercing behind this reserve and in discerning the processes of life, as a great portrait-painter looks behind the face of his sitter, sees some aspect of the soul, and makes the soul speak to the onlooker from the silent canvas. And what is at once curious and interesting is that Dr. Allen appears to be as unconscious of the power he possesses and exercises as was Phillips Brooks of his own power. He does not seem to be analyzing when he really is doing so. There is no process of vivisection; no abnormal interest excited in a keen dissection of motives; no suggestion of an irreverent handling, as one sometimes sees in a smart critic of a great author. The impression of Phillips Brooks's real personality steals upon you while you read, as the personality of one of

[1] *Life and Letters of Phillips Brooks.* By Alexander V. G. Allen. With Portraits and Illustrations. E. P. Dutton & Co., New York. 2 vols. $7.50.

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the portraits of Chase or Sargent while you look.

This quality gives a very special interest to the first volume in which we can trace the making of the great preacher. The process of intellectual and spiritual development is suggested by Dr. Allen, but only suggested. The reader is left to trace it for himself in the note-books and the letters. The skill of the author is all the greater for the self-denying though probably quite unconscious tact with which he conceals his skill. He is no guide pointing out the successive steps in the architecture of a great soul, as a verger points out the successive phases in the development of a great cathedral. And yet the architectural process is somehow perceived—more clearly perceived than in any other biography we are able to recall. It is this which makes this life of Phillips Brooks by Dr. Allen a great biography. On reflection, we are inclined to question whether he could have accomplished this result in a briefer work. Growth requires time; perhaps to watch the process of growth requires time also.

Phillips Brooks possessed two apparently inconsistent temperaments. In the pulpit he seemed under the domination of a spiritual imagination and an ethical passion. It is true that he was neither a fanciful nor what would be called an emotional preacher; he was the farthest possible remove from a mere dramatic exhibitor of pictures; he never made his audience laugh, and rarely made them cry. But he spoke as a man possessed by a power higher than his own. Hearing him, one could realize how the ancient Hebrew prophets seemed, both to others and to themselves, to be speaking, not their own message, but the message of Jehovah. "Inspired" would more nearly characterize his speaking than that of any other orator we have ever heard. Here, the auditor would have said, is a seer, a prophet, a man of visions. But out of the pulpit there was not the least trace of that fanaticism into which such enthusiasm so often degenerates. Phillips Brooks was pre-eminently a sane man—rational, calm, self controlled, with wise practical judgment, which, so far as we know, was never obscured by his enthusiasms. His emotional and visionary temperament he appears to have inherited from his mother; his practical, worldly-wise judgment from his father. The first made him a great preacher, the second made him a wise bishop; the combination made him a teacher able both to inspire with divine ideals and to guide in life with practical counsels. This combination of character is curiously illustrated in his manner of sermon preparation. We condense slightly Dr. Allen's account:

> He took half a sheet of sermon paper, folding it once, thus making four small pages, some seven inches by less than five in their dimensions, which he was to fill. He invariably filled them out to the last remaining space on the last page, as though only in this way could he be sure that he had sufficient material for his sermon. Each plan contained, when it was finished, a dozen or more detached paragraphs. His next task was to go over the paragraphs, each of which contained a distinct idea, and was to become, when expanded, a paragraph in the finished sermon, placing over against each the number of pages it would occupy when it had been amplified. Then he added the numbers together. Thirty pages was the limit of the written sermon. If these numbers of assigned pages fell short of thirty, he reviewed his plan to see where he might expand, or where to reduce if he had too many.

All this indicates a kind of dread lest, when he fell under the power of the spirit which possessed him in preaching, he should overrun all reasonable limits, as many a preacher does, with far less reason for overrunning. But, the plan being thus laid out and the limits fixed, not only for the sermon but also for each division in the sermon, Phillips Brooks wrote with rapidity, rarely correcting afterward to any extent. He had put beforehand the necessary limitations upon himself, and within those limitations he appears to have written, as he afterwards delivered, the sermon with an unrestrained and almost unconsidered freedom.

The same curious combination of good sense in preparation and intensity in action characterized his eras of acquisition and of output. He graduated one of the first sixteen in his class at Harvard, having done nothing to indicate either to his teachers or his classmates any extraordinary genius. The college papers which Dr. Allen gives are such as any boy, able to take a rank among the upper classmen in such a university as Harvard, might easily write, such as have been written by hundreds of collegians who have never

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been heard of in after life outside their own locality. He graduated, as most college boys do, without any definite idea what he would make of himself, apparently hesitating between literature and teaching. We see no reason in any of the poems which Dr. Allen prints to think that he would ever have made a poet above the second rank; the only poem he ever wrote which is likely to live is his "O Little Town of Bethlehem." There is nothing to indicate that he could ever have been a successful author of fiction, or could have made any notable contribution to philosophy. If he had achieved success in literature at all, it would probably have been as a writer of essays. As a teacher he could hardly have failed of measurable success, though probably rather as an inspirer of life than as an imparter of knowledge, and with older rather than with younger students. His first attempt at teaching was a humiliating failure. We agree with Dr. Allen in thinking that the fault was not in Phillips Brooks but in the principal who put a boy just out of college in charge of a class of boys almost as old as himself—boys who had already run riot with three teachers and driven them in succession from the school. Wherever the fault lay, the humiliation was felt by Phillips Brooks alone. Mr. Gardner appears never for a moment to have mistrusted that the fault was his; and it was never the habit of Phillips Brooks to throw upon others the fault of failure in any enterprise with which he was connected.

The world has occasion to rejoice at this failure; for it not only turned Phillips Brooks aside from the teacher's chair, which hundreds of others could fill as well as he, and sent him into the pulpit, where he was as a preacher without a superior and we are inclined to think without a peer in his time, but, by the shock which it gave to him, and which might have discouraged a weaker man, aroused him to become his true self and fill his true place in the world. He went to Alexandria, in Virginia, to study theology, although he had not yet been confirmed. It is quite clear that he by no means was sure that he would be a preacher; he simply took this means to continue his studies, to recover his equilibrium, and to determine what his future should be. How little to the discouraged student there appeared in the regular course in Alexandria Seminary that could stimulate or train the powers, appears in a single sentence in one of his letters to a friend: "When are you coming to see us? Leave your intellect behind; you won't need it here." If we make full allowance for the intellectual dissatisfaction of a student who had not yet got his bearings, and who somewhat unjustly compared a Virginian theological seminary, ill endowed and ill supported, with the foremost university in the country, yet it must be confessed that in the curriculum at Alexandria there was nothing to account for the development of Phillips Brooks's genius. But that it was developed at Alexandria is certain. His writings when he left the Latin School are not remarkable. The extracts given from his diary at the close of his first year and still more in the second year at Alexandria have all the qualities of moral and spiritual genius of his later life. He seems to have opened suddenly, as the pond-lily does in the morning when the sun strikes it. Those elements of life which make his later sermons such reservoirs are here, as rills and springs, which only need opportunity to develop into great and life-giving streams.

The secrets of this self-development are indicated, first, in the range of his reading; second, in the formulation of his purpose. The range of his reading is indeed extraordinary. In poetry, all the great English poets from Dryden to Browning; in theology, Butler, Milman, Fuller, Kingsley, Coleridge, and, a little later, Maurice and Bushnell; in antiquities, Becker, Wines, Josephus, Prideaux; in Greek, Herodotus and Æschylus; in Latin, Plautus and Lucretius; in ecclesiastical literature, Augustine, Tertullian, and Bede, are among the authors with whom he grows familiar during his first year, not to mention French and German authors read, apparently, as were the Greek and Latin authors, in the original, with ease and pleasure. But he does not merely read, he meditates on what he reads. He formulates and fixes his thoughts by writing them down in a note-book. These thoughts take on a homiletical form; he is evidently studying, not indeed to make sermons, but to extract moral and spiritual lessons from literature; not to get its

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literary beauty but to get its vital truth, though less for others than for himself. His faith that all life is divine and that God speaks in all languages and dialects, by no means confining himself to those of the Church, directs his use of all literature, and inspires him to find spiritual values in all. This, which becomes, not only his fundamental faith, but his fundamental message, and one sorely needed in the Puritan community to which subsequently his message was mainly delivered, appears in his first sermon as clearly as in any sermon he ever preached, though not with as much affluence and power. One sentence in this sermon might serve as an epitome of Phillips Brooks's theology: "Every power has its work to do, every capacity its gift to fill it, every motive its wheels to turn or shaft to drive, in achieving finally the soul's great work; and so the fullest manhood of man's best development is sanctified by God's purpose of man's salvation."

We regard Phillips Brooks as probably the greatest preacher of the century. He was not comparable as an orator to Henry Ward Beecher, nor as a reformer to John B. Gough, nor as a theologian to Horace Bushnell or Elisha Mulford; but as a preacher he was without a peer. If by preacher we mean the herald and minister of a divine life, if by prophet we mean one who speaks for Another, if by apostle we mean one who is sent forth by Another to bear witness to his presence, Phillips Brooks was pre-eminently a preacher, a prophet, an apostle. This biography of his is valuable in many ways, but perhaps chiefest of all in showing what elements enter into the modern preacher or prophet or apostle to make him what he should be. It is certain that no assiduous and scholarly work would have made him the preacher that he was had he not inherited from his parents a unique combination of temperaments; it is equally certain that no inherited temperaments would have made him the preacher that he was had he not assiduously and conscientiously set every power of his soul to do its work, striven to fill every capacity to its fullest by hard study, cultivated in every motive the power to achieve his appointed mission.

Some men are omnivorous readers, and simply repeat in modified forms what they have read. These retailers of other men's thoughts, whatever their profession, are reporters—useful but not great. Some men are students, reflecting as well as reading, and giving to their pupils, whether from the pulpit or the teacher's chair, the results of commingled study and reflection, in thoughts in which the original material may be discriminated by the hearer, as it is by the speaker, from his own contribution. These are the scholars, whether they preach or teach or write. Finally, there are men who read in all realms only or chiefly to feed their own souls, who turn all their reading by reflection into blood and nerve and muscle, and who give forth in original thought and feeling, apparently spontaneous, what is in truth the product of much reading, reflection, and meditative study. These are what men call the original thinkers; they are the poets and the prophets. To this type Phillips Brooks belonged. The whole world of literature ministered to him; but he was not its minister. He used it only as he had first assimilated it and made it a part of himself. He rarely quoted an author; we suspect he rarely remembered what he had found in authors. His references to books were almost as rare in conversation as in public discourse. But no one can read this biography without discerning the truth that Phillips Brooks had a rich nature because he had enriched it; without receiving a new demonstration of the folly of that perpetually refuted yet perpetually recurrent notion that genius is a substitute for hard work, instead of being, what it really is, skill in so directing hard work as to suffer the least possible waste and to make the greatest possible profit. We wish that some philanthropist would buy up a special edition of this work and offer it to ministers at half price. Seven dollars and a half is, alas! prohibitory to many of the clergy, and we should like to see this work in the hands of every minister who does not think himself too old to learn.

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The Political Causes of the Uprising in China[1]

By Arthur H. Smith

Special Commissioner for The Outlook in China

THE close of the war with Japan marked one of the critical points in the age-long history of the Chinese Empire. At the conclusion of that brief but decisive struggle the Chinese found themselves forced to accept humiliating terms, the very idea of which probably never entered into the minds of those who a few months before, ignorant and unprepared, embarked upon the hopelessly unequal contest. The rise, for the first time in history, of an Asiatic Power to be henceforth the equal of the nations of the West was at once recognized as an event of importance to the whole human race, and one the consequences of which could not be foreseen. Had Japan been unhampered by pressure from other Powers, she would undoubtedly have demanded a large money indemnity, and, for a time at least, would have occupied the territory that she had conquered by force of arms, which is known by the general name of Manchuria; it embraces in its widest meaning the whole country from the Great Wall, has its terminus at Shanhaikuan, and stretches north to the Amur River. The southern province of this extensive region goes by the name of Shengching (or Shingking), and is the hereditary seat of the Manchus who founded the dynasty at present ruling China. The capital, Mukden, is distant but a few hundred miles from Peking, and, although separated from it by low ranges of hills and by the Great Wall, neither of these would be any protection against invasion from the north, as the Chinese had learned by bitter experience several hundred years ago. Had the Japanese been allowed to occupy this group of provinces, they would have become the masters of the Chinese Empire. Into the political history of the troublous days after the close of actual hostilities in the spring of 1895 it is superfluous to enter. It may suffice to recall the familiar fact that the Russo-French alliance, backed by Germany, warned the Japanese that this apparently natural and inevitable result of their deserved success could not be allowed, and the Japanese troops were withdrawn. Until the indemnity agreed upon should be paid, Japan was to occupy the harbor and fort of Weihaiwei, about fifty miles east of Chefoo, near the eastern end of the Shantung Promontory, a position which she had wrested from China toward the close of the war, under circumstances peculiarly humiliating and disgraceful to China. Besides this, Japan was to have the island of Formosa, a prize toward which many hungry eyes had been looking for a long time.

The Chinese Government is a strange mixture of despotic methods with strains of democracy. Of this the whole body of the Censorate is an example; and in theory, but by no means in uniform practice, the Censors are allowed to express their views upon public matters, and even to condemn the acts of the Emperor himself. At a crisis like that at the conclusion of the war with Japan it was essential for the Government to be made aware of public official sentiment in regard to the continuance of hostilities. At a meeting of the Grand Council held on the 24th of February, 1895, it was reported that the Emperor had declared his intention to submit this question to the high provincial authorities from the first to the third rank inclusive. To save time the memorials were to be telegraphed to Peking, and the implication was that his Majesty would be guided by the vote of the majority. Within two days it was known that twenty-one memorials had been received in response, of which more than two-thirds advocated peace if Japan desired an indemnity only, however large the amount, but declared for war to the bitter end if the enemy desired to keep any of the conquered territory, on the ground that the Emperor's prerogative did not include the giving away of land obtained by his ancestors at the cost of so much bloodshed.

The Chinese have always greatly honored the name of the Emperor Ch'ien-Lung, who was the grandson of K'ang-Hsi, the

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second Emperor of the present dynasty, and who imitated his grandfather's unusual feat in reigning for sixty years, at the expiration of which period he abdicated the throne, for the characteristically Chinese reason that it would be unfilial to exceed one's grandfather. Under Ch'ien-Lung the domains of the Empire were extended to their widest limits, and any curtailing of this heritage would be felt as a national disgrace. It is quite true that millions of the people never knew at the time, and probably do not now know, that there was any war at all with Japan; but the very peasants of whom this can be affirmed are yet highly inflammable when wrought upon by agencies adapted to stir their sluggish blood, as they have been for now more than half a decade. The Chinese have for forty years been expert in playing off one Western Power against another, and in thus contriving in turn to baffle them all. On the other hand, since all Western lands were interested in China—although by no means to the same degree—it has been a not unnatural expectation that whenever the welfare of China relatively to the world was threatened by one Power, the rest, or at least some one of them, would intervene and prevent a serious injury to the common interests of all. In the case under consideration, three of the leading Powers of Europe were united in their demand upon Japan, and she was helpless to resist. There was no Power to which China could turn for help except Great Britain, and, for reasons known perhaps to the directors of her so-called "foreign policy," Great Britain elected to remain entirely neutral. It is vain to consider the might-have-beens of this critical time, but it is plain that, had the course of Great Britain been different, the whole trend of events in the Far East might have been altered.

In due time an understanding between Russia and China was arrived at, by which the price to be paid for keeping Manchuria out of the clutches of Japan was fixed upon. It was a secret agreement, but in China nothing is too securely locked up to be inaccessible to him who holds a silver key. Its terms were published to the world through the London "Times" and the "North China Daily News," of Shanghai, and each journal was ridiculed for its credulity in accepting the "Cassini Convention" as a bona-fide document. When its substantial authenticity was definitely established, it became evident that Russia had very naturally and very cleverly played the part of the lawyer in Lord Brougham's familiar definition of that useful functionary, as "a man who rescues your estate from your adversary and keeps it himself." The great Russian trans-Siberian railway, one of the most important enterprises in a century full of audacious undertakings, had long been in process of construction, pointing toward the new Russian port of Vladivostok, at the mouth of the Amur River. In spite of all that could be done for the amelioration of the natural conditions, this ice-bound harbor was far from being a suitable terminus for the all-rail line to Europe and the West. In consequence, and as a part of the new arrangement with China, Russia was entitled to build her line directly through Manchuria, aiming at the port of Talienwan, at the southern extremity of the peninsula in which Shengching terminates. For the protection of the road, Russia was authorized to introduce her own troops; and although at the expiration of a certain period the road might be taken over by China, no one was deceived into the faintest expectation that it would not turn out that by this adroit act Manchuria was completely mortgaged to the great Empire of the North.

The result of the agreement between Russia and China was presently to fill Manchuria with such numbers of Russians, especially soldiers, that to the eye of the observant traveler it appeared to be already under the distinct protection or semi-government of Russia; and, according to all reports which reached the outside world, the Russian occupation was accompanied with incidents which would have roused into active hostility any people in Europe. The Chinese have a great respect for their rulers, and recognize the impropriety and folly of endeavoring to modify, much less reverse, the acts of those who hold the symbols of authority. But they also know and feel that China is not and for many years has not been a free agent in her governmental acts. When they beheld such an alienation of soil as the virtual transfer of the whole

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northern portion of China to her most dreaded neighbor, it was with the profound conviction that such a result could have been brought about only by the exercise of a force which, so far as China was concerned, was irresistible. The indignation inevitably begotten was for the time smothered or disguised, but it was inextinguishable, which is only to say that the Chinese are not so destitute of national spirit as to be indifferent to the fate of the Empire.

On the first of November, 1897, occurred an event the consequences of which no prophet would have been able to foresee. Two German Catholic priests living at a village twenty-five miles west of Chiningchou, in western Shantung, were suddenly and without warning set upon by a band of over twenty men, one of them receiving nine wounds from swords, the other thirteen, both of the priests being killed almost at once. No one else in the compound received any injury. Many theories were advanced to account for the act, such as that it was committed by banditti, who abound in that part of Shantung, that it was done in revenge for a failure to secure employment, or for help given to certain Catholic converts who had a lawsuit, or that it was instigated by the Ta-Tao-Hui, or "Great Sword Society," between which and the Catholics there had even at that time been a bitter feud of some years' standing. Whatever the occasion for this outrage may have been, it was certainly not in any way due to official connivance, as the local magistrate happened to be well acquainted with one of the priests, and was much affected at the terrible sight when he arrived in his capacity of coroner to make an official inspection.

Within two weeks of the time that these events occurred German ships of war made their appearance at Chiaochou (or Kiaochou) Bay, and took possession of the island of Chingtao (or Tsingtao), the Chinese officials yielding the place without a struggle. Not long after, the German Legation was reported to have formulated its demands for the settlement of the murder case under six heads: (1) an indemnity of 200,000 taels of silver; (2) the rebuilding of a chapel destroyed in the riot; (3) the repayment of Germany's expenses incurred in the occupation of Kiaochou; (4) the Governor of Shantung, Li-Ping-Heng, to be cashiered and dismissed from the public service; (5) the severest penalties upon the murderers of the German priests, and upon the local authorities where the riot took place; and also (6) Germans to be given the sole right to open coal-mines throughout the province of Shantung; special privileges to be granted Germans in the matter of railways in the said province, as well as the right to open mines within a belt of country twenty kilometers wide; and Germany to be given the privilege of storing coal at Kiaochou in perpetuity—that is, Kiaochou was to become a German naval coaling station "in perpetuity." Kiaochou has a spacious harbor, upon which the various Powers had had their eye for a long time. It was supposed to have been one of the items of the Cassini Convention that if this port suited the convenience of Russia, she should be allowed a temporary occupation. That Germany should be able to get it with no reference whatever to Russia was very improbable; the only rational conclusion being that in this respect there was a perfect understanding between those Powers.

In the final arrangement made with China, the Germans undertook the administration of a considerable section of country immediately contiguous to Kiaochou, thus being suddenly fitted out with what they term "the Colony of Kiaochou," which has ever since been the center of a highly vitalized Teutonic activity of every kind, especially in the line of railway-building into the interior. Tsingtao is less than four hundred nautical miles from Shanghai, and is the natural gateway to a fertile and prosperous region, the trade possibilities of which seem capable of indefinite expansion. In a decade full of surprises relating to the fixed and immobile Orient, it is difficult to recall any single event which has excited such general astonishment as the German occupation of Kiaochou. A correspondent of a Shanghai paper writing from Chefoo, a port about two hundred miles distant, which could not fail to be greatly affected by the event, remarked (with an incoherence pardonable in view of the circumstances) that, with the Mexican dollar falling in price, and trade prospects unusually gloomy owing to keen Chinese competition, this announce-

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ment was "a bolt from the blue, hard to digest and difficult to assuage"! The comments of the press, both in China and in other parts of the world, exhibited in a striking light the anomalous position in which China was placed. She had been treated as no Power whose opinion or whose navy was of any weight in the world would be treated, but there was not a friend to protest. Her persistent course of evasion, shuffling, and obstruction ever since the peace with Japan made it clear even to her well-wishers that nothing was to be hoped for from the present rulers of the Empire. They learned nothing and they forgot everything. The weak policy of Great Britain was a source not merely of discontent but of profound anxiety to all who understood the real state of things in China.

When Germany stepped forward in this imperious manner and sent her fleet under Admiral Diedrichs and seized the port which she wanted, negotiating for its lease for a term of ninety-nine years after it was in her control, it was very natural to say of China, and to feel it too, "Served her right"—not for the murder of the two priests, with which the capture of Kiaochou had only a formal connection, but for general wrong-headedness and incapacity to be taught by any but the bitter lessons of experience which she could not fail to feel. Except by the religious journals of the Far East, we do not remember that any attention was called to the true character of the proceeding of Germany from the point of view of international law, a code which it was doubtless thought, if it was thought of at all, was irrelevant to the case. The matter was argued about as if it had been a commercial "deal" of a bold and venturesome character, with possible resultant complications, but for the most part as if it had been devoid of moral character. One was, indeed, reminded of the tone of obituaries which designedly pass entirely over whatever facts in the career of the deceased it would be "good form" to forget and ignore; and the same style of speech and writing continues down to the present day. Of this the much-discussed article by Sir Robert Hart in the "Fortnightly Review," on "A National Uprising and an International Episode," is an excellent example. In nearly thirty pages of description followed by discussion, the only paragraph devoted to the true cause of the Boxer movement is the last, and the only explanation of those causes is comprised within the limits of two sentences and half a dozen lines, as follows: "What has happened has been the logical effect of previous doings. Europe has not been ungenerous in her treatment of China, but, even so, has wounded her; a more tactful, reasonable, and consistent course might possibly have produced better results, but in no case could foreigners expect to maintain forever their extra-territorial status and the various commercial stipulations China has conceded to force."

There has been a general impression ever since the "lease" of Kiaochou that it was intended as a step toward obtaining the recognized overlordship in various particulars of the entire province of Shantung. That the whole affair was a fatal dart which never for an instant ceased to rankle in the Chinese body politic was long since known (and disregarded), but the ultimate results to which it led, in combination with other events which followed, the wildest flight of Oriental imagination never entertained. The lease of Kiaochou had no sooner been arranged than it began to be felt in the air that Russia was about to occupy the great naval station of Port Arthur, situated at the tip of the Manchurian peninsula previously referred to, and only a short distance from Talienwan, which was to be the terminus of the trans-Asian railway. This fine harbor figured largely in the war with Japan, being captured by the Japanese when it ought to have been surrendered only at the last extremity. It was here that the Japanese lost their customary self-restraint, and, rendered furious by the too palpable evidence of Chinese barbarities, proceeded to retaliate in kind upon the innocent and the helpless Chinese, to the great damage of Japanese reputation. The Chinese Government had for a long time been engaged in making this the naval headquarters for the northern portion of the Empire, and the sums of money reported to have been expended upon forts and dry-docks were of almost incredible magnitude.

A glance at a good map of Japan, Korea, and China will immediately convey an impression of the importance to China of

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this naval base. It is but one hundred and sixty-three nautical miles from Taku, and still nearer to Chefoo, constituting the key to the possession of northern China. That China should allow any Power whatever to retain it after Japan had been obliged to surrender it was simply incredible. That Great Britain should suffer Russia to take over this all-important fortress without a protest never entered into the thought of any one, for if this were done there was no other place at which any stand could be made, and it was apparently equivalent to committing China, body and soul, to the charge of her dangerous neighbor. There is much about the matter which still remains a mystery, but it seems certain that a display of something like the firmness shown in the Fashoda incident would have been an absolute bar to the concession of this strategic position without the firing of a shot or the rendition of any visible equivalent. But the British fleet sailed away on more important business, and the die was cast! Those who are interested to examine the commercial aspects of this affair will find data in several recent works. We are concerned only to point out that this critical event was a long step in the road which led the Chinese to feel that the Empire was already at the mercy of its enemies, and that among those enemies was to be reckoned every nation whose flag had ever flown in Chinese waters. The treaty port of Newchwang soon became an object of dispute as to whether it was, or was not, to be regarded as within the new Russian sphere, the important question being complicated by British railway and commercial interests, which, with the rights of other nations under their treaties, appeared to have suddenly evaporated without any assignable cause and with no visible remedy.

The British Government lacked the decision to take a firm stand in the case of Port Arthur, but within a few weeks it became known that the Chinese Government had responded to a British demand to "lease" the fort and harbor of Weihaiwei as soon as it was evacuated by the Japanese, who held it as security for the payment of their indemnity. As to the value of this acquisition expert opinions have been at variance ever since the cession took place. If Great Britain had consistently refused to recognize the principle of seizing sections of the coast of China on the part of foreign Powers, her position would have been a strong one morally, whatever the consequences. As it was, she appeared in the light of a philanthropic friend of China who objected to seeing the Empire despoiled, "*but* if you insist upon taking the best there is, I, at all events, must have the next best." Following so soon after the seizure of Kiaochou, the occupation of Weihaiwei led the Chinese to feel doubly sure that the doom of the Empire was definitely sealed. The subsequent negotiations in regard to the extent of territory embraced in the district, and the actual delimitation of the frontiers, were full of ominous signs. The people were left in some uncertainty as to the nature of the transfer, and when the boundaries were fixed, an armed attack was made upon the British and their Chinese regiment, conveying to the population of Shantung the impression that the natives of that region were standing up for their rights against the usurpations of the insatiable barbarians. These highly natural disturbances on one side of the province were going on simultaneously with the Boxer outbreaks on the other side, and while there was no organic nexus between the two, they were each the result of the wider causes which had gradually enveloped the whole Empire as in a net. The British had long wanted a larger territory on the mainland opposite the island of Hongkong than had been previously ceded, and, by taking advantage of their opportunity, they induced the Chinese Government to yield it. But the same tactless method just referred to in the case of Weihaiwei had been followed among the inflammable Cantonese, who were soon in a white heat of rage, arming themselves with whatever implements could be found and making fight for their altars and their fires. To their own dim thought they were as truly patriots as was William Tell in his resistance to the tyrant Gessler. Even the somewhat narrow-visioned journals of Hongkong sometimes admitted the justice of the Chinese case, and were perpetually indulging in the most caustic criticisms of the ineptitude of the conduct of the negotiations and the ensuing occupation of the concession on the part of the Colonial Government.

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The territory included in this "lease" was two hundred square miles, comprising the entire region on the mainland behind Kowlung to a line joining Mirs Bay and Deep Bay, besides the waters of those bays and the island of Lantao. When the natives of this tract found the British marching into their domain to take over the government of their city, and posting notices of their future intentions, showing that the Emperor's "rivers and mountains" had been alienated to the same hereditary foe which two generations ago wrested from Tao-Kuang the island of Hongkong, their passionate resentment was not only perfectly natural, but did them credit.

While the Chinese of Tungkun, to the number of several thousands, were threatening an attack on Kowloon (Kowlung) city and the docks, the "rebels" being shelled in their trenches and many Chinese killed and guns captured, until the despatch of 1,400 British troops and three gunboats to Kowloon city dispersed the "rioters," the French had determined that what in modern diplomatic parlance is styled the "psychological moment" had arrived to demand concessions of their own. The frontier of the Kuangtung province and Tongking was in a state of perpetual unrest from Chinese "Black Flags," who now kidnapped a Frenchman and anon slew a lieutenant, the French Government upon one occasion demanding an indemnity within eight days, "otherwise French action in the south of China will become necessary." In fact "French action in the south of China" appeared to be a chronic necessity, and the port of "Kuang-chouwan" was needed to reduce that action to a state of equilibrium. The large and attractive island of Hainan also was hanging on the edge of the Chinese Empire like a pear fully ripe and only waiting for the French harvester to gather it into his fruit-bin.

In the summer of 1899 the Italian Government made the discovery that a port called Sanmen (or Sanmoon) in the Chekiang province was required for the development of Italian trade. This demand was supposed to be backed up by both Great Britain and Germany, and it was understood that the Chinese were instigated to refuse it by the Japanese, not, however, from any sentimental considerations with regard to the integrity of the Chinese Empire, but because the cession of Sanmen would prejudice Japanese "claims" upon the province of Fukien, which, being directly opposite the island of Formosa, was a natural and an inevitable Japanese "sphere of influence." To the surprise of most observers, after the Court in Peking had recovered from its alarm that a Power like Italy should claim "a port," a definite refusal was returned. China had to draw the line somewhere, and she drew it (not improbably with cold shivers down the back for fear of the consequences) at Italy and her new and hitherto unheard of "port." Again to the surprise of outsiders, and, as we must suppose, to the immense relief of China herself, there were no visible consequences whatever. In spite of whatever backing she received, the matter was dropped by Italy; but the results to China were, perhaps, more serious than if the demand had been acceded to. There is excellent reason to believe that the Chinese Court was delighted at its own audacity and its success, and came to the conclusion that if China would only oppose blunt and unconditional refusals to *all* foreign demands, she would in future escape the humiliating necessity for any further concession. At all events, the resources of the Government appeared to be strained to put the country in a posture of defense, and during the autumn of 1899, in a "secret decree" the contents of which were soon divulged, all the most important Governors-General were peremptorily ordered to see that the Empire received no detriment, and in case of imminent foreign invasion to repel force by force without even waiting to report the matter to Peking—a mandate so extraordinary, if not unexampled, as to show that some new influences were at work. The combined effect of the incidents which have been mentioned—and of many others which must be omitted—was to convey forcibly to the minds of foreigners expert in Chinese affairs a conviction that the actual partition of the Chinese Empire was in progress; and while this was at times doubted or even denied, it is difficult to see upon what other hypothesis we can account for the trend of current events.

It was about this time that the volume containing the results of the opportune

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and thorough examination of some aspects of Chinese affairs by Lord Charles Beresford was published, under the significant title of "The Break-up of China." The perfectly frank comments of this distinguished commercial sailor were translated into Chinese, and were doubtless well known to such leaders as directed the policy at Peking. For several years foreign journals, in China and out of it, had spoken of the coming partition of the Empire as an event immediately impending, and in the translations of these countless essays published in the Chinese journals the readers were perpetually gratified by finding the contingency alluded to with the use of a character which signifies "to cut up like a watermelon." The most enlightened Chinese officials have long been in the habit of keeping track to some extent of the discussions in the foreign press both of China and the West, by means of translations of whatever seemed to be most worthy of attention. By this means a definite acquaintance with what was talked of and written about must have been constantly communicated to all those who took any interest in the subject. From these sources it would not be difficult for any well-informed Chinese to learn what the British thought of the rapid strides of the Russians in Manchuria, and of the designs of the French on the southern border. On the other hand, the press of Continental lands was by no means silent, nor, when attention had been effectively arrested to consider the tremendous possibilities of Chinese economic development in China, were the writers on the American side of the Atlantic behind the rest in pointing out what share of the "spoil" belonged to the United States. The most recent maps of China, appearing in works large and small, agree in marking out "proposed" railway lines, and the most careless inspection could not fail to excite wonder at the number and length of these promised (or threatened) improvements, concessions for which at certain periods seem to be signed at intervals of a few days only.

A recapitulation of a few of the more important projected railway routes, especially when traced on a map, will convey a graphic idea of the extent to which the prophecy of the author of one of the anti-foreign writings already quoted had been fulfilled: "China from north to south, and from east to west, is to have foreign railways and carriage roads. The mountains and the rivers of China, the natural barriers of the country, are to be treated by foreigners according to their will, the mountains to be leveled and the rivers filled up just as they please." (1) The Trans-Siberian line through Manchuria to Mukden and Talienwan, connecting at Newchwang with the Shanhaikuan and Tientsin road. (2) The Luhan "Belgian" route from Peking via Paotingfu to Hankow, on which much work had been done at each end. (3) A line from Hankow southward through Hunan and Kuangtung to Canton, partly surveyed. (4) A line from Tientsin southward to Chinkiang, and thence to Hangchow, with probable future extensions to the south. (5) A German line from Tsingtao through central Shantung. (6) A line from Shanghai to Soochow, and with extensions up the Yangtzu Valley. (7) From Soochow to Nanking and westward, connecting with the Luhan route. (8) From Chengtingfu in western Chili through the Kukuan pass into Shansi, to tap the mineral deposits. (9) From Canton westward up the West River to Wuchou, and thence to Kueiyangfu, the capital of Kueichou province, and westward to Chengtu, the capital of Szech'uan province. (10) From Hankow southward through Kueiyang and Yunnanfu via the Kunlun Ferry to Mandalay in Burma. (11) A French line from Hanoi in Tongking, via Yunnanfu to Chengtufu. (12) From Maulmein in Burma via Upper Siam to Yunnanfu, connecting with the line to Hankow. (13) From Peking to Kalgan through the Nankow pass. Every one of these routes (and the list is incomplete) was expected to "open up" China in a way to astonish the natives and enrich the benevolent introducers of so much potential happiness into the Celestial Empire. Extensive surveys had been made upon some of the lines, often with great danger to the surveyors and their staff. Every one of these roads involved concessions for mining rights, present or prospective, and in some cases hundreds of square miles of the richest mineral land in the Empire (or perhaps in the world) had been bargained for by "syndicates" eager to enter upon their inheritance, and

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not infrequently eying one another with jealousy and ill will. Great Britain was supposed to have pre-empted the Yangtzu Valley, and looked with great uneasiness upon the resolute struggles of the French to gain a supreme hold upon Kuangsi, Yunnan, and Kueichou provinces, with the great imperial objective of Ssuchuan in view beyond. Each of these Powers would have been glad to apply a Chinese "Monroe Doctrine" to the other. Fukien province was supposed to fall to Japan, while Italy hoped for Chekiang, with a railway leading somewhere to foster her infant trade. Shantung was the German monopoly. Manchuria was Russian, while the metropolitan province of Chili was for the time debatable land, the future of which was complicated by rival and conflicting interests in mines in Shansi. An entertaining and an instructive volume might be compiled by one who had the requisite information on the inner history of all these tangles of commercial diplomacy.

In many quarters the new arrangements were held to be harbingers of the new era upon which China was about to enter—nay, had entered. It is quite conceivable that if some of the complicated factors had been but a very little different the explosion might have been avoided, or at least postponed; but the materials were all there, and some of them were already alight.

It cannot be wondered at that the Chinese themselves were bewildered at the situation in which they found themselves and their ancient empire. Their condition recalls an anecdote of which Mr. Lincoln made use at a time when certain parties presumed to dictate to him a policy. A rider was mounted upon a horse which was much annoyed by flies, and in one of its impatient kicks the hind hoof caught in the stirrup. The horseman glanced down to see what was the matter, and when he had ascertained, he observed to his steed: "If *you* are going to get on, *I* will get off!"

Probably there is not another country on the planet where events and conditions such as have been very imperfectly hinted at would not long before have produced an outbreak. When the storm came, it was undoubtedly greatly aggravated by an event with which it appears at first sight to have had no connection—the reform measures of the Emperor in the year 1898. To this topic it will therefore be necessary to devote a little attention.

The Ascent of Mount Apo—II.[1]

By Phelps Whitmarsh

Special Commissioner for The Outlook in the Philippines

SHORTLY after we had parted with the old chief we made a sudden drop of several hundred feet into a cañon, at the bottom of which ran a clear mountain torrent. Our first real work began at this point; for here the river-bed became the highway. And such a highway! For the best part of two hours we jumped from one slippery rock to another, crawled by the aid of tree roots along the cañon sides, or struggled waist-deep against the foaming current. And even then we covered little more than a mile. Fortunately, we came across a Bagobo boy, about thirteen years old, fishing, and he at once forsook his rod and piloted us up-stream. In spite of his age and peaceful occupation, he was armed with a spear, a short campilan, and the semicircular-shaped Bagobo knife. He was a bright, engaging little chap, not one bit afraid of the white men, and so willing and plucky that he put our whole party to shame. Not only did he pilot us, but at the most dangerous crossings he carried most of our baggage over, while the Visayans and ourselves, with nothing in our hands, had frequently to be helped across. Once the little fellow turned his ankle and went clean under with thirty pounds of rice on his shoulders. I looked for him to come up in the rapids below, but no, he rose in precisely the same spot clinging to his shivering spear, and still with his burden. But for Calayman, as

[1] The first part of Mr. Whitmarsh's account of the ascent of the famous mountain peak, the highest in the Philippines, will be found in last week's issue of The Outlook. Copyright, 1901, the Outlook Company.

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he called himself, we should probably have lost some of our provisions, and certainly have lost much time. At times we got a short respite by wading in the shallow water at the stream's edge, and again we came to black water between precipitous walls, which could be passed only by clambering up and around by means of the creepers and shrubs which had taken root in the rock crevices. But although our progress was slow and painful, and we frequently could hear nothing for the roar of the waters, the grandeur and beauty of the gorge amply repaid us for it all. As we proceeded, the cañon deepened, and the dripping rock-walls, draped with a luxuriant mass of ferns, arborescent trees, hanging vines, and mosses, rose a sheer six hundred feet above us. In places where the walls narrowed, the upper trees arched the cañon and it became a gigantic tunnel, dark, eerie, and fringed with a rank growth of tropical vegetation. Thrice in that weary mile we met with waterfalls; one spouting out from what appeared to be an underground conduit, another leaping down a well-worn chute, and the third a ribbon cascade streaming over the edge of the chasm and reaching the bottom in a fine mist. The last fell like a veil across the mouth of a black cavern where bats flitted; and the afternoon sun, which at that point threw a lantern-like ray upon it, conjured with the spray and produced a rainbow.

At last we found our smiling little guide waiting for us at the foot of a precipitous trail leading up the left bank. It was as nearly straight up and down as anything passable well could be; part of the climb, indeed, it would have been impossible to make but for the long notched bamboos which were placed as ladders against the perpendicular faces. For persons wishing to rid themselves of troublesome neighbors, the rancheria we found above was an ideal place, as the removal of the ladders made the spot inaccessible. By the time we reached the house to which Toncalin had instructed our last guide to take us, and which, by the way, was the property of Bitil, it was almost dark. Some twenty or thirty Bagobos, with long flambeaux of bamboo, aided us in getting our things under cover, and the fierce flares lighting up their half-naked, muscular bodies, their shaggy heads, their spears, the front of the strange dwelling, and the glossy leaves of the forest background, made a weird scene. Headed by Bitil's son, a good-looking but effeminate youth with a mass of crimpy hair hanging about his shoulders, we were visited by the headmen of the rancheria and as many more of the curious natives as could crowd into the house. They were very friendly, bringing with them presents of live chickens, eggs, camotes, sugar-cane, maize, and wine. So friendly were they, indeed, that, although we gave them our stereotyped lecture on Americanism, they all stayed the night. I do not know whether they were surprised at Americans coming in such a peaceful manner or not, but at all events they had a glorious time. We slept that night at an altitude of two thousand five hundred feet. Even at this height we found a decided change in the temperature, and a blanket very comfortable.

The next day plunged us into a deep forest and carried us beyond trails, settlements, and all signs of human life. The whole day we climbed steadily upward, the mountain gradually growing steeper and steeper. The two new guides who had been added to our party, thus making thirteen in all, led the way, blazing the trees as they went, and uttering curious cries. Their intention was to scare away evil spirits, but they were also of practical value, for they served admirably to keep us all in touch. Now we passed through a belt of huge timber hung with loops of bejuco and the ground strewn with surface roots and rotting logs; again we had rocks under foot and a thick undergrowth of ferns to contend with; again we followed the boulder-filled courses of the dry streams, and higher still we entered a forest which, save for the upper branches, appeared to be dead. The last was a most dismal passage, for each gnarled trunk and limb, every vine and stone, and even the ground, was covered with a phenomenal growth of moss, lichens, and orchids. Beautiful it was, but strangely lonesome; like a forest I once saw in northern Benguet, it had the appearance of being submarine. But throughout the long day, no matter what our surroundings were, we had ever a heavy roof of foliage over us from which calaos screamed and

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monkeys chattered, and through which we could see neither view nor sun. We believed that we were climbing the middle slopes of Apo, but we could be sure of nothing. Early in the morning I was stung on the hand by a monster nettle, and the pain, which extended to my shoulder, rendered my arm almost useless for the remainder of the day. Several times we saw clumps of variegated coleus, sown, I imagine, by birds, and in places there were patches of waxy, salmon-pink flowers quite new to me. Our guides pointed out a few gutta-percha trees on the way, and one tree of camphorwood. The bark of the latter tasted curiously like American sassafras. Viao nuts, which the natives use as candles by impaling a dozen or so of them upon a slender piece of bamboo, were in great abundance. These nuts are so full of oil that they burn readily. In the dark, fungus-smelling bottom of the forest our guides grew apprehensive, and by all manner of excuses tried to persuade us to return. We knew that there was no danger of their going back alone, for they were too frightened; so we pushed them along with assurances that neither gigantic pythons, heroic-sized apes, nor Bagobo devils were proof against rifle-bullets.

One of the many evils which our friends had warned us against, however, we struck that day—namely, leeches. Our attention was first called to these pests by the bleeding legs of our carriers. As we had canvas leggings on, tightly laced, we flattered ourselves that we were immune, but a sharp pricking sensation about our ankles soon convinced us to the contrary; and when, at noon, we took our shoes and leggings off, we found that a swarm of these persistent little bloodsuckers had crept through the lacings and were already swollen with their feasting. Many of them, when we pulled them off, clung so tenaciously that their heads were left in our flesh. On one of my insteps I disengaged a bunch of the creatures as large as a walnut, and the sore they occasioned did not heal for several weeks. These leeches are not the kind so much used formerly by physicians, but are small, wiry things about a quarter of an inch long. I have seen them stretching their eager heads from damp rocks and from wet grasses, trying to lay hold of every living thing that passed them; the mud-holes, however, are their favorite haunt, and in such places it is impossible to escape them.

In the afternoon the leafy roof above us gradually lowered, and about five o'clock we emerged into an open space—the almost dry bed of a stream. The water left in the pools tasted so strongly of sulphur that we could drink it only when made into coffee. For the first time since I had left the highlands of northern Luzon, I enjoyed the luxury of feeling cold, which is hardly to be wondered at when one considers that we were then at an altitude of 5,450 feet above sea-level.

We began our third day of actual climbing by cutting our way, creeping and crawling between the tree roots and through a dense underbrush, the trees in the meantime rapidly growing smaller. This continued for about one thousand feet, when we were confronted by a barrier of bracken so tall and thick that it seemed at first as though our journey must end then and there. We had reached the point where the trees were of such low stature that the bracken, seeking the light, had shot up through the branches and spread its hardy leaves over all. Save in a few cases, where a more aspiring tree-top projected, this strangling growth of fern had formed a mat-like roof above the stunted forest some ten or twelve feet from the ground. Seeing that we could neither crawl under the network of black stems, nor, without several days' labor, cut a way through it, we decided to return and try to ascend by the precipitous river-bed. But here our oldest guide became of real service. By felling a tree against the bracken, he provided himself with a ladder to the top. To our surprise, the interwoven leafage bore him, and, after he had tested it in several places and announced that it was safe, we all followed him. We had thought our first climb that morning arduous enough, but it was light in comparison to the exhausting four hours or so we spent in passing over this zone of bracken. We advanced principally upon our hands and knees, our legs frequently slipping through the weak spots; and several times we went down bodily to the knee-deep layer of leaf-mold covering the ground and had to be dragged out. Once we all fell

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through together, and had to cut a path to the nearest tree in order to get up again. It was like walking over a huge spring mattress full of holes, placed at an angle of about sixty degrees and covered with two feet of loose hay. Though we rested often in the projecting tree-tops, and the golden crest of Apo now rose in all its rugged grandeur above us, we groaned in spirit and anathematized the god-mountain from its summit to its base. Gradually, however, the trees dwindled to low shrubs, bare spots appeared, and we at last reached the foot of the great crevasse. Down this mighty crack in the mountain-side the crater last overflowed. It is the source, moreover, of the river Tagalaya. The bottom was strewn with great blocks of partially decomposed andesite, and was devoid of vegetation. Here we were rejoiced to find water, for our canteens had long been empty and we were not sure of being able to replenish them. The liquid was again strongly sulphurous, but we found no fault with it. Thirst is less fastidious than hunger; it is usually satisfied with anything that will run. Here, also, the two guides from Bitil's rancheria refused to go any further; they were frightened, they said, of Apo's anger. As we could get along very well without them, we left them some provisions and pushed on with the remainder of the party. An hour later we reached the sulphur-field. It covers perhaps ten acres, is about one thousand feet below the crater, and is doubtless the weak spot where, if Apo again becomes active, a new crater will be formed. Scattered over this area were eight or ten sulphur cones from six to twenty feet high, and hundreds of smaller jets. They were shaped at the top like a steamship's ventilator, and emitted choking fumes, with a noise half puff and half grunt, and had incrusted the entire surroundings with about half an inch of sulphur. The larger cones were very beautiful, looking like pillars of greenish-yellow marble. It was evident that, after they had built themselves up to a certain height, these cones fell to pieces or were blown down, for in many places blocks of sulphur some three feet in diameter covered the crevasse. Not feeling sure which side of the crevasse would lead us to the summit, we separated at the bottom, Lieutenant Thomas taking the north side and I the south. The fissure widened as we ascended, and when we were about five hundred feet apart we were suddenly enveloped in a cloud. We began at once to shout across to each other, and thus discovered a curious example in natural acoustics. Notwithstanding the distance between us, we could hear each other with remarkable distinctness when we spoke in a low voice. We could also hear each other's footfalls and heavy breathing as plainly as though we were side by side. If we shouted, however, the sound was magnified to a reverberating roar, and we could understand nothing. Fearing that the thick veil of cloud might continue and cause us to be separated for the night, I crossed the fuming crevasse with the idea of connecting with Thomas. But although the cloud lifted soon after I scrambled to the edge of the northern side, I found no trace of my companion. I naturally thought he had preceded me, and toiled on over the deer-trail to the summit with all possible speed, soon outdistancing the three carriers who were with me. At the ridge of the north shoulder of the mountain, as I still failed to sight the party, I halted and took to picking blueberries, the bushes of which, together with dwarfed conifers and bracken, covered the greater part of the steep. Later, I cooeed in Australian fashion and whistled, but without reply save for a wonderful echo, first from the crevasse and then from the craggy side of the crater. The echo pleased me, and I amused myself for perhaps ten minutes by laughing, shouting, and a variety of vocalizations. By and by a roar came up the cañon which, for the moment, startled me. It was a shout from Thomas, half a mile below:

"Is that you, Whitmarsh?" I made out.

"Yes! What's the matter?" I returned.

"For heaven's sake, stop that noise! The natives think it's the devil, and they all want to go back!"

Half an hour later we were all together again, and after a short rest we prepared for the final spurt of about five hundred feet to the bare, rocky mountain crest. Just as we were about to start, however, the summit was again enshrouded in mist, and, since we were especially desirous of getting a clear view of the interior country, we determined to camp where we were until the following morning. Though it

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was but half-past three in the afternoon, no sooner had we eaten our cheerless meal of hardtack and corned beef than we wrapped ourselves in our blankets, picked a sheltered spot among the bracken, and "turned in." The strong wind, accompanied by drenching clouds, was, to us, bitterly cold. It sufficed to set our bodies shivering and our teeth chattering in a most un-Philippine fashion. An hour earlier the thermometer had stood at 60° F.; now it had fallen to 54°. The aneroid registered a height of 8,950 feet.

While we lay there wishing for the heat which we had cursed earlier in the day, one of our guides, an old Visayan, came over from the well-like place in which the "boys" were huddled, for some tobacco. "Señores," he said, as he drew his thin manta closer about him, "I would not come up here again even for five pesos." [1] As we had declared, a few minutes before, that we would not make the trip a second time for five hundred dollars, the old man's serious statement was received with immoderate laughter.

About six o'clock the breeze died away and the upper sky cleared. In the still air the clouds stopped scurrying and rolled up in great white masses of fantastic shape, to settle down for the night. For a little while we forgot the cold and sat up gazing with admiration, not unmixed with awe, at the glorious, ever-changing sea of clouds that stretched away in gigantic billows of saffron and rose, purple and pearl, away to the far horizon. Then the stars came out, cold and clear, and we bade each other good-night. But sleep we could not. We spent the entire night vainly trying to keep from slipping down hill and shivering with cold. At times a bat whirred by or a stone rattled down the mountain-side, and twice we started apprehensively at the subterranean rumblings which shook the ground beneath us; but otherwise all was calm and uncannily quiet. At daybreak the thermometer was down to 42° F.

The moment the sun rose we all started up the peak, leaving our gear behind us. At the very apex we found a bottle placed neck down in the ground. It contained the cards of Herr Otto Koch and Dr. Alexander Schadenberg, two German scientists who ascended the mountain in 1882, and an envelope marked D. Burke, 1884. Montano, the French traveler who describes his trip to Apo in 1880, apparently left no record. It was an unusually clear morning, and the view on all sides was superb. To the northeast the Davao River, with a steamer lying at its mouth, was plainly visible though thirty miles away, and, beyond, the isles of Samal and Talicud; eastward lay the blue Gulf of Davao and the distant peninsula; southward, the truncated cone newly christened Mount Pettit, and to the west a vast stretch of forest-covered and unexplored interior. The summit was the highest point on the edge of the old crater, which was about two hundred feet deep and four hundred feet wide at the top. In the bottom of the crater, where a small lake had formed, we saw two deer quietly grazing. They were safe enough, for we had left our rifles below. After we had added our names to those already in the recording bottle and taken some observations we turned down, and the same night made Bitil's rancheria. Instead of returning by the bracken route, we took the river-bed, and found it much easier traveling, though somewhat dangerous. At nine o'clock the following evening, by dint of hard walking as far as Toncalin's and then a twenty-mile ride, we reached the commandancia at Davao. Calayman, the Bagobo boy, followed us in, and thus made his first acquaintance with civilization. Contrary to our expectations, he elected to stay with us, and I afterwards took him around the island and later to Manila. Our seven days' trip to the god-mountain, though it left us sore, bruised, and scratched, our clothes torn and our boots in shreds, brought us none of the dire results so freely prophesied by the natives. On the contrary, we returned in excellent physical form, and in mind, for the moment at least, satisfied. According to the reading of our aneroid, which of course is only approximately correct, we made the altitude of the mountain 9,450 feet. This figure is less than any previous records, and in one way was rather disappointing; but there were times on our journey when we would not have added one foot to its stature. Like our old Visaya guide, we would not have been so tempted "even for five pesos."

[1] About $2.45 gold.

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The American Negro[1]

IN his introduction Mr. Thomas makes it known that he is partly a negro, though throughout the book he refers to the race as if he were not a part of it. One gets the feeling that he is making the most of the fact that he has enough blood connection with the race to enable him to speak from the inside, yet he is not proud of being a negro, and never once refers to the race as "our race" or "my race." Mr. Thomas acknowledges that he was a "carpetbagger," that he fought in the Civil War, and afterwards was elected by the colored vote in South Carolina to the State Legislature, and still later held a judicial position in that State. Still later he claims to have been engaged in educational work in the South, though diligent inquiry so far fails to bring us accurate information as to where he was engaged in the work of education. At any rate, it is clear that the last twenty years of Mr. Thomas's life have been spent mainly in the North near Boston, away from the great bulk of the race and out of direct touch with the tremendous constructive forces which have been at work during the last twenty years for the regeneration of the black man.

We have seldom seen a "carpetbagger," black or white, who did not take a gloomy view of the future of the South and of the negro. So long as the negro, by his vote, was able to keep the carpetbagger in office, the negro was all right; when he ceased to do this the future became very dark. On the other hand, men like the late S. C. Armstrong, of Hampton, and the late Dr. Cravath, of Fisk University, who were soldiers, and remained in the South after the war, not for the purpose of getting office, but of lifting up the negro and the white man, have always taken a hopeful view of the future.

One strain that runs through Mr. Thomas's book from first to last is his insistence that the negro get land and education. This, however, is not new, for this is the thing that most of the educators in the South for more than thirty years have been insisting upon. More recently the importance of land-getting has been emphasized though the medium of the Tuskegee Negro Conference and the various local conferences that have grown out of it and are now scattered throughout the South. There is no mistaking the fact, though, that the main object of the book is to show, in a word, that the negro so far has been a failure from a material, mental, and moral point of view. Over against many of the bold, unsupported statements made by the author of "The American Negro" as to the lack of material progress, we want to place a few facts that will tend to show whether or not the efforts of negro schools in the South have been fruitless, and whether or not the negro has stood still or gone backward. First, let us take the State of Virginia, where the colored people have been under the direct influence of the great Hampton Institute as well as of other schools. The Hampton Institute and its work, however, Mr. Thomas strangely omits altogether, or brushes it aside as being of no consequence. The official figures in relation to the negro's ownership of land in Virginia for the past year are as follows:

> The negroes now own one-twenty-sixth of all the land in Virginia. They own one-sixteenth of all the land in Virginia east of the Blue Ridge; one-tenth of all the land in twenty-five counties in the State; one-seventh of Middlesex County, one-fifth of Hanover County, and one-third of Charles City County. The negroes of Virginia are acquiring land at the rate of about fifty thousand acres a year. Their real estate holdings would appear much larger if there were added the farms for which they have contracted, upon which they are making payments, but have not received the title.

In regard to the negro's material progress in the State of Georgia, the State Comptroller has recently given out the following figures, which are reliable in every respect:

> The aggregate of property owned by negroes in Georgia is $14,118,720, as against $13,560,179 last year. Of this $4,361,390 is city and town property, and $4,274,549 is represented by farm lands. They own $72,975 worth of merchandise, have $93,480 in cash solvent debts and $469,637 in plantation and mechanical tools. The total number of acres of land owned by negroes is 1,075,073, and there are 110,985 negro voters in the State, as shown by the digest. Their property returns show a flattering increase for every year since 1879, when they returned for taxation only

[1] *The American Negro: What He Was, What He Is, and What He May Become.* By William Hannibal Thomas. The Macmillan Co., New York. $2.

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$5,182,398 worth of property. In 1889, ten years later, they had doubled their possessions, returning for taxation at that time $10,415,350 worth of property.

Other Southern States could make as good a showing, and yet Mr. Thomas would have us believe that practically no material progress has been made. According to the theory advocated in his book, he would have us throw a wet blanket over all this splendid advance through individual effort, and have the General Government enter into a scheme of buying and selling lands to the negro much on the old "forty acres and a mule" plan. He would have the negro trained to look to Washington for everything, instead of depending on himself or his State, and have the whole South flooded again with Federal officers.

A fair idea of the value of Mr. Thomas's economic ideas can be obtained by reading the passage in his book wherein he criticises such men as ex-President Hayes, Morris K. Jesup, William E. Dodge, and Dr. J. L. M. Curry for not following his advice to invest the John F. Slater Fund of a million dollars in Southern lands. According to his theory, which he outlines with much detail, if his advice had been followed, instead of that of bankers like Morris K. Jesup, the million dollars would have yielded the *first year* an interest amounting to four hundred thousand dollars, and the *second year* it would have yielded five hundred thousand dollars. Clearly, according to this showing, Mr. Thomas's rightful place is in Wall Street, rather than in the field of book-writing. It is perhaps true that no single agency has accomplished more in stimulating and guiding the education of the negro along proper channels than the John F. Slater Fund. At least this is the opinion of experts and of men of National reputation in the educational world.

The author of this book condemns practically every method that has been used for lifting up the negro; everything is wrong except that which he advocates, but which he himself, it seems, has failed to put into practice anywhere in the South. He advocates industrial education all through his book, yet condemns it as it now exists in many negro schools at the South. He goes so far as to outline a curriculum for the teaching of agriculture to the negro. We have recently placed this curriculum by the side of that of one of the largest industrial schools in the South, and find that what he condemns the educators of negro youth for not doing is actually being done in several schools, and is fast spreading all through the South.

Mr. Thomas devotes much space to a contention that the fundamental mistake in the education of the negro is in educating him along Anglo-Saxon lines, and yet, at the end of his long contention, it is almost pitiful to see how he knocks the foundation from under his own logic by stating that a certain literary college in Kentucky, where there is almost no attempt at industrial education, and where the bulk of the students are white—only a small proportion being negroes—is the only institution in the South that is educating the negroes along correct lines. How can a college that exists mainly for white people educate along anything but Anglo-Saxon lines? And in what respect is the curriculum of Berea College—a very worthy institution—different from that of Fisk University and Atlanta University?

But, plainly, the main point of the book is to discount the morals of the negro. In this respect many of Mr. Thomas's statements are so extreme and so entirely unsupported by evidence, except his own bare assertions, that much that is good and valuable in the book will be discounted. We believe that no one would be quicker to refute many of these unreasonable statements than the Southern white people themselves. A writer, who is unknown and almost unheard of, who makes such statements with expectation of being believed, should be careful to fortify himself by giving names, places, and dates, and not deal so largely in generalities and statements taken merely from his own head. He speaks constantly of having received his information from a "certain Governor" or a "certain physician" or a "certain teacher."

For example, does the author of "The American Negro" expect himself to be taken seriously by intelligent and thoughtful people when he says, "The consequence is that there is no school of prominence in negro training which has not had among its pupils young freedwomen sustaining immoral relations with white men,

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whose school expenses have been, in many instances, defrayed by such persons with the knowledge and consent of the school authorities"? It would be hard to make any of our readers believe that such a statement would apply to men like Dr. Frissell, of Hampton, the late Dr. Cravath, of Fisk University, Dr. Bumstead, of Atlanta University, the President of Wilberforce University, and numbers of institutions under the control of the Congregational, Methodist, and Baptist denominations at the South.

In another statement he says: "We shall, however, in view of all the known facts at our command, be justified in assuming that not only are fully ninety per cent. of the negro women of America unchaste, but the social degradation of our freedwomen is without a parallel in modern civilization." A little later on, Mr. Thomas seems to have forgotten this outrageous statement regarding negro women, and says, when speaking of the whole race: "It is correct to say that fully ninety per cent. of the freedmen are reasonably law-abiding, and, apart from an instinct for petty pilfering, are fairly honest in deportment. They have the confidence and support of orderly white society, and are rarely molested by its lawless class."

In another case he says: "For instance, the negro's ethical code sternly reprobates dancing, theater attendance, and all social games of chance." A few pages further on he forgets this statement, and adds: "It is as much a quest for physical excitement as the promise for pecuniary gain which impels the negro to indulge in petty gambling, and makes him the chief 'policy-player' of the community, in every city, North and South."

In another instance he states that the high death-rate and low birth-rate of the negro people shuts out any possibility of their attaining formidable proportions in this country. A little further along in the book he speaks of the "ever-increasing millions of negro citizens."

In still another statement he speaks of the South being overrun with incompetent, illiterate doctors, among other classes of professional men. Now, what are the facts? In Alabama, for example, no man, black or white, can enter the medical profession without passing a very severe examination. Perhaps with the exception of the State of Virginia, the examination in Alabama is more severe than that of any other State in the Union. In that State a diploma from no college is accepted. No one can enter the medical profession without taking the regular State examination, and it is very rare that any man can pass this examination inside of ten days. The code of medical ethics in the South perhaps is higher than it is in the North; no man of any race would, for a single day, be tolerated in the profession of medicine who did not lead a correct, moral life and was not well prepared professionally for his work. In Alabama there are about twenty-five negro physicians, and we have facts that warrant us in saying that, almost without a single exception, these men are highly educated, are successful in their practice, are respected by their white brother physicians, and have high moral and business standing in their communities. There are nearly seven hundred thousand negroes in Alabama, and it is bordering on the ridiculous to speak, for example, of that State being overrun with negro physicians, when there are only twenty-five to practice among seven hundred thousand people. What is true of Alabama is in an equal degree true of other Southern States. No set of individuals have made a higher record professionally and otherwise since the war than the negro physicians.

Further on Mr. Thomas enlightens us again in the following statement: "The preacher in charge of the moral training of his people, and the teacher engaged in their mental instruction, will steal from each other and from the whites as readily as the most indigent freedman." This statement will include such ministers as the Rev. Dr. J. W. E. Bowen, of Gammon Theological Seminary, the Rev. Dr. F. J. Grimke, of Washington, D. C., and such teachers as Dr. W. E. B. DuBois, of Atlanta, Ga., Professor Hugh M. Browne, of the Hampton Institute, and Mrs. B. K. Bruce, woman principal of the Tuskegee Institute, and Miss Maria Baldwin, Principal of the Agassiz public school of Cambridge, Mass. It has remained for Mr. Thomas to inform the public that such persons will steal from one another and from the whites.

He further proceeds with the statement that the more intelligent the negro is,

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the more does his disposition to theft enlarge. In answer to this, some years ago, a careful investigation was made, and it was found that not a single man or woman who had graduated from one of the larger institutions in the South was to be found in a State prison.

Mr. Thomas says: "There are, in all of the large cities, North and South, among the race, so-called voudoo and conjure doctors to whom vast throngs go for amulets to ward off disease, and for treatment when sick." As a practical test of much that the writer says in this book, we should be interested in having some one interested in sociological conditions in Boston or New York ask Mr. Thomas to lead him to one of these voudoo and conjure doctors to whom "vast throngs" go for treatment. We venture the statement that no such "vast throngs" can be found, and that few if any voudoo or conjure doctors can be found in our Northern cities; at any rate, we hope some of our readers will put Mr. Thomas to the test. The following statement is equally unworthy of belief: "It is, therefore, almost impossible to find a person of either sex, over fifteen years of age, who has not had actual carnal knowledge."

We have not been slow to point out the weaknesses of the negro race nor to condemn the negro's follies. We know that the race at many points is weak and needs to make itself strong, but at the same time we are convinced, through direct and reliable evidence, that there never was a time in the history of the race when so much real progress is being made materially, educationally, and morally as is true at the present time. This progress is slow, but it is steady and sure, and no one need become discouraged or lose hope for the negro race. Mr. Thomas, on the other hand, would, it seems, lift the race up much as one would build a house. This cannot be done. If the author of "The American Negro" had spent his time during the last ten or twenty years in going through the South, speaking directly to the colored people in their schools, their churches, conventions, and associations, about the weak points that he brings out in his book, and this book had been the natural result of his efforts in this direction, we confess that we should have more respect for him and for what he says. The people in the United States do not have a very high regard for a man who goes to England to make known the weak points in the life of Americans. The people of Boston do not have high regard for an individual who goes to New Orleans to condemn Boston. The citizens of Atlanta do not have much respect for an individual who goes to New York to condemn the people of Atlanta. The men of the white race will not have high regard for a writer who seems to withdraw himself from his own race and goes outside of it to emphasize its weak points before an audience of another color.

The remedy for such an extreme case of the blues as Mr. Thomas evidently has is to be found in going right into the field among the people and entering into hard, earnest work for their uplifting. So long as the men and women who are actually engaged in a first-hand manner in the lifting up of the negro do not become discouraged, so long we shall have great faith in the future. It is sad to think of a man without a country. It is sadder to think of a man without a race; and this, we fear, is about the position in which Mr. Thomas may be described as having voluntarily placed himself through the medium of his book.

Suspense

By Charles Henry Webb

So little a light,
Can it live?
Just a flicker in the night,
Angels give
It shield with your wings,
Lest a breath—
Your white robes' rustlings—
Should be death.

So little the spark,
So immense
The great world; and the dark
Is so dense,
I dare not to pray,
But, lips hushed with fear,
In my soul's depths I say,
"God is near."

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Books of the Week

This report of current literature is supplemented by fuller reviews of such books as in the judgment of the editors are of special importance to our readers. Any of these books will be sent by the publishers of The Outlook, postpaid, to any address on receipt of the published price.

According to Plato. By F. Frankfort Moore. Dodd, Mead & Co., New York. 5×8½ in. 337 pages. $1.50.

Let no one expect to find here another "Jessamy Bride." The present volume is not a historical novel; instead, in it is a clever satire, first, on platonic friendships as between impressionable young folk of opposite sexes, and, second, on the literary tricksters of the day. The plot is uneven—the first part well outlined and well sustained, the latter part ill proportioned and irritatingly incoherent. An up-to-date atmosphere is diffused throughout by reason of various allusions to very recent events. While the dialogue is somewhat too strenuously epigrammatic, it is often unexpectedly and deliciously pyrotechnical; after a while, however, one becomes somewhat fatigued by the persistence of a Fourth-of-July vivacity.

Beginners' Course in Bible Study (A). By James McConaughy. The Bookstore, East Northfield, Mass. 4×7¼ in. 122 pages. 40c.

Cabinet Secret (A). By Guy Boothby. Illustrated. The J. B. Lippincott Co., Philadelphia. 5×7½ in. $1.50.

Campaign Pictures of the War in South Africa (1899-1900). By A. G. Hales. Cassell & Co., New York. 5×7½ in. 303 pages.

Mr. Hales was a correspondent in South Africa for the London "Daily News," and these are his "letters from the front," edited and selected from his published articles. They are frankly but not at all unpleasantly personal in tone, and have a keen outlook on the picturesque and humorous sides of war. When the author attempts the serious and pathetic views, he is apt to wax over-rhetorical. His attacks on the undoubted deficiencies of British military red-tapism would be more effective if they presented facts in detail and indulged less in excited invective.

Curious Career of Roderick Campbell (The). By Jean N. McIlwraith. Houghton, Mifflin & Co., Boston. 5×8 in. 287 pages. $1.50.

There are animation and quick-changing action in this story of the days when the French and English were struggling for the possession of American territory. Many of the characters are Scotch people who wandered here after the failure of the last uprising for the Pretender. The author is a historian of Canada, and is intimately acquainted with the episodes she here depicts cleverly in fiction. There is some comedy in the tale, and the love story is unusually pleasing.

Disciple (The). By Paul Bourget. Charles Scribner's Sons, New York. 5×7¾ in. 341 pages.

A new edition, or possibly a new translation (the title-page does not indicate the translator), of M. Bourget's most famous book.

Easy Stories. By Elizabeth A. Turner. Illustrated. Ginn & Co., Boston. 5×7 in. 152 pages.

Education and Life: Papers and Addresses. By James H. Baker, M.A., LL.D. Longmans, Green & Co., New York. 5×7½ in. 254 pages. $1.25.

Dr. Baker has drunk deep of Greek as well as modern wisdom. The Hellenic and the Teutonic strain are each conspicuous in his thought. These eighteen chapters are at once idealistic and practical; pervaded by a strenuous and also religious spirit. The author believes heartily in "the gospel of work." Education must be in close touch with the problems of our time, while directed to an ideal end. The heroic, ethical, and æsthetic elements of character must be its chief concern. Among points of method it is held that common sense will save from some strange pedagogy, and that there must be a shortening of the time spent between the first grade and the college degree. Dr. Baker's interest reaches beyond current educational questions to the ideal life that education is to foster. His treatment of this, in chapters that seem to have been originally addressed to young men, college students, is stimulating both to high thought and noble purpose.

Elements of the Theory and Practice of Cookery. By Mary E. Williams and Katharine Rolston Fisher. Illustrated. The Macmillan Co., New York. 5×7¼ in. 347 pages.

Though the preface states that this book is designed primarily for the use of teachers and students of cookery, it seems to us that it will be welcomed by many housekeepers who have not the opportunity of taking courses in domestic science, and who will be glad of its scientific information on fuel foods and tissue-building foods, and its chemical analysis of wheat and yeast. Besides this, it contains a few receipts of which the novice may have no fear, since they have been tested in many class-rooms.

First Reader. By Frances Lilian Taylor. Illustrated. The Werner School Book Co., New York. 5½×7½ in. 128 pages.

High-School History of the United States: With Maps, Plans, and Illustrations. By Alexander Johnston, LL.D. Revised and Continued by Winthrop More Daniels, M.A., and William MacDonald, Ph.D. Henry Holt & Co., New York. 5¼×8 in. 612 pages. $1.25.

This volume brings Professor Johnston's history up to date by means of a well-written chapter by Professor MacDonald, of Bowdoin, covering all the events of President McKinley's first administration, but keeping in the foreground those relating to expansion. The volume contains also new appendices covering the statistics of cities, States, etc., down to the census of 1900, and important public papers such as gave value to Professor MacDonald's

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"Select Documents of American History" and "Select Charters."

History of Criticism and Literary Taste in Europe (A). By George Saintsbury. In 3 vols. Vol. I. Classical and Mediæval Criticism. Dodd, Mead & Co., New York. 5½×9 in. 499 pages. $3.50.

The initial volume in an elaborate work, to fill three volumes, which are to trace the course of criticism in Europe from the earliest times to the present day. This volume is devoted to classical and mediæval criticism; and the work will receive fuller attention in these columns.

History of Medicine in the United States, with a Supplemental Chapter on the Discovery of Anæsthesia. By Francis Randolph Packard, M.D. Illustrated. The J. B. Lippincott Co., Philadelphia. 5½×9 in. 542 pages.

The title on the cover of this work does not indicate, as it should, that the history stops with the year 1800. To the majority of readers, therefore, the most interesting part of the book lies in the author's detailed account, in a supplemental chapter, of the discovery of anæsthesia. He does detract from Dr. Morton's credit as a discoverer, but not at all from the splendid pioneering work done. Dr. Packard pays full honor to Dr. Morton for demonstrating the value and use of anæsthesia to the medical profession and to the world. Our author, however, believes and proves that the credit of first using ether as an anæsthetic is due to Dr. Long, who in 1842 operated on patients under that influence. It is also interesting to read that the use of anæsthesia met with two obstacles; first, among some physicians who feared that its use was attended with great danger; second, among some narrow religious folk who held that, if the Almighty has destined the human race to suffer pain, it was wrong for any one to attempt to change his decree! They specially condemned its use in obstetrics. Curiously enough, says Dr. Packard, no one seems to have thought of the ingenious argument subsequently advanced by Sir James Simpson for the use of chloroform in childbirth, namely, that the Lord threw Adam into a deep sleep at the time of Eve's birth.

History of South Carolina in the Revolution, 1775–1780. By Edward McCrady, LL.D. The Macmillan Co., New York. 5½×8 in. 899 pages. $3.50.

The welcome which we gave to Mr. McCrady's volumes on the earlier history of South Carolina is not only renewed but redoubled for "The History of South Carolina in the Revolution." Fortunately, this volume can be read quite independently of its predecessors, and the new light which it throws upon the Nation's history during this great epoch ought to lead it to be read as widely among scholars all over the country as the earlier volumes should be among the scholars of South Carolina. We have before had occasion to remark that American history has been treated much too largely from the New England standpoint. The present volume makes us feel that we have hitherto put this criticism too mildly. At all events, we have learned more from this review of the Revolution as it manifested itself in South Carolina than would have been possible from a half-dozen histories attempting to cover the whole field, but covering it as it was seen from the North. The military events at the South have, indeed, been well treated elsewhere, but the political events, and the political sentiments back of the events, have been practically unknown to the mass of historical students. Some of them, too, have been grossly misunderstood by historians of high rank. For instance, the generalization that the richer people of the coast districts favored the Revolution, while the poorer people of the frontiers sided with the King, proves to be essentially false, for while the coast districts did as a whole support the Revolution, the richer people there, as at the North, opposed it. As the clerk of the Council of Safety wrote to Drayton, "The plebeians are still for war, but the noblesse perfectly pacific." In the poorer frontier districts the Scotch-Irish and German settlers were opposed to the Revolution, but their opposition was not in any sense the outcome of their social sympathies. They were, as a rule, recent immigrants, and had not as yet been given representation in the provincial government. They were thus naturally out of sympathy with its leadership. In 1780, after taking Charleston, the British came very near succeeding in the complete pacification of the province, but, by insulting the people whose loyalty they needed, and breaking faith with the prisoners who had been released on parole, they engendered a new war spirit which took possession of the whole people. It was then, as Mr. McCrady remarks, that "the heroic period" began. Only one year of this period is covered by the present volume, but another volume is promised to complete the history.

Human Nature Club (The): An Introduction to the Study of Mental Life. By Edward Thorndike, Ph.D. Longmans, Green & Co., New York. 5×7½ in. 235 pages. $1.25.

The elements of our mental life, as viewed by modern psychology, are the topics discussed by this club under the lead of a good teacher. The conversational way in which they are handled, each member asking his question and having his say, is well adapted to popularize the most recent teachings of science as found in Professor William James's books, to which frequent reference is made. The conclusions at which each evening's discussion arrives are summarized and clearly stated in a brief concluding "note by the editor." In this attempt to make scientific psychology easy to apprehend, and humanly more interesting than in the text-books, Dr. Thorndike has very cleverly availed himself of the ancient Platonic method of dialogue.

In Spite of Foes. By General Charles King, U. S. V. The J. B. Lippincott Co., Philadelphia. 4½×7½ in. 331 pages.

Intermediate Physiology and Hygiene: For Fifth and Sixth Year Pupils. By Winfield S. Hall and Jeannette Winter Hall. The American Book Co., New York. 5×7½ in. 181 pages. 40c.

Introduction to Sociology. By Arthur Fairbanks. (Third Edition.) Charles Scribner's Sons, New York. 5×7½ in. 307 pages. $1.50.

Introductory Lessons in English Literature. By I. C. McNeill and S. A. Lynch. The American Book Co., New York. 5×7½ in. 376 pages. $1.

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J. M. Barrie and His Books: Biographical and Critical Studies. By J. A. Hammerton. M. F. Mansfield & Co., New York. 5½×8 in. 264 pages. $2.

A volume of biographic and critical studies, chiefly, however, biographic, in a very appreciative vein, by a devout student and lover of Mr. Barrie. The book has been expanded from three or four brief chapters originally contributed by the author to various English journals. The chapters are written in an informal way, with a plentiful infusion of anecdote, showing an intimate knowledge of Mr. Barrie's work and a close study of the man. The most valuable chapters are those which deal with Mr. Barrie's college days, his early days in journalism, his early work in literature, and his first book. The volume is eminently readable; and, without being in any sense final either as biography or criticism, will be very acceptable to the lovers of the Scotch novelist.

Jonathan and Other Poems. By D. W. Whittle. The Fleming H. Revell Co., New York. 4½×7½ in. 158 pages. 75c.

Joseph Chamberlain: The Man and the Statesman. By N. Murrell Marris. Illustrated. E. P. Dutton & Co., New York. 5¾×9 in. 480 pages. $5.

After reading this portly and well-printed volume, we are more than ever unconvinced as to the necessity for its size. It might be condensed with profit to all concerned. Some years ago Mr. Jeyes furnished a political estimate of Mr. Chamberlain for that admirable series, "Public Men of To-Day." Enough has happened latterly, it is true, to make an account of Mr. Chamberlain's recent statesmanship of peculiar interest. The present account has, therefore, a sufficient reason-of-being, and this, in its author's estimation, is doubled because of the need of describing what has not before been adequately described—namely, Mr. Chamberlain's personality. The description before us can hardly be satisfactory to its fastidious subject; it is certainly not to some possibly over-fastidious readers. Despite his plethora of superfluous words, his deplorably unvivacious manner and total absence of style, Mr. Murrell Marris succeeds, nevertheless, in adding valuable material to our knowledge of the discussions in which Mr. Chamberlain has taken prominent part, such as Irish Home Rule and the grievances of the Transvaal Outlanders. Nor is the author altogether wanting in shrewd observations and thoughtful deductions.

King's End. By Alice Brown. Houghton, Mifflin & Co., Boston. 5×7½ in. 246 pages. $1.50.

A New Hampshire romance written with true charm and fine character-portrayal. The author has fairly won a place in rank with Miss Jewett and Miss Wilkins, but is as distinct from each as they are from one another. "King's End" is a little village on the outskirts of the mountains, and there is a pervading out-of-door feeling which is true and sweet. There are several clearly marked minor characters, well hit off in a few touches, while the visionary but really womanly girl who for a time thinks herself called away from her lover to preach with a semi-inspired, semi crazy evangelist is portrayed with vigor, and the lover himself almost equally so.

Law and Policy of Annexation. By Carman F. Randolph. Longmans, Green & Co., New York. 6×9½ in. 226 pages.

Reserved for later notice.

Light of the World (The). By Herbert D. Ward. Houghton, Mifflin & Co., Boston. 5½×7¾ in. 57 pages. $1.

In this romance Mr. Ward relates the recovery of a departed soul from skeptical error. An eminent mathematician and lens-maker, dying an unbeliever in Christ, is conducted to the great discovery that Christ is his Lord and his God. The assumed basis of this discovery is the fiction that, if one could overtake the rays of light reflected from this earth at successive moments of the past, he could see thereby all that has ever taken place on earth, in "an everlasting scroll that can be read." And so the skeptic spirit, speeding through the universe with the swiftness of thought, sees, after much else, the vision of the Crucified in his death and resurrection, before which his intellect and heart, fusing in reverent homage, adopt the confession of the doubting but convinced disciple. The bold conception is worked out with artistic skill and finish.

Love's Argument and Other Poems. By Ellen Thorneycroft Fowler. Dodd, Mead & Co., New York. 5×8¼ in. 151 pages. $1.50.

Ludovic Zam Affair (The). By P. W. E. Hart. (Percie W. Hart.) The Bibelot Bros., New York. 4×6 in. 272 pages. $1.50.

Making of Christopher Ferringham (The). By Beulah Marie Dix. The Macmillan Co., New York. 5½×8 in. 453 pages.

Miss Dix has written two fresh and vigorous novels before this—"Hugh Gwyeth" and "Soldier Rigdale." In "Christopher Ferringham" she tells the story of a scapegrace son of a cavalier colonel killed at Marston Moor, who was himself captured at Worcester, and afterwards ransomed by his grandfather and sent to his Puritan uncle in Massachusetts. His adventures and love affairs, and his development into true and decent manliness, are told with directness and graphic force. There is perhaps an excess of "strange oaths"—we find "'s life," "'s truth," "'s blood," and "'s wounds" at a single opening—but in spite of this the style is good, and the story is well worth reading.

Manual of the Constitution of the United States. By Israel Ward Andrews, D.D., LL.D. Revised by Homer Morris, LL.B. (Eclectic Educational Series.) The American Book Co., New York. 5×7½ in. 431 pages. $1.

A revised edition of Dr. Andrews's clear and thorough discussion of the provisions of our National Constitution. The general framework of our State Constitutions is also indicated by a brief summary of the Constitution of Ohio.

Masters of Music: Their Lives and Works. By Anna Alice Chapin. Dodd, Mead & Co., New York. 5×7¾ in. 395 pages. $1.50.

This collection of little biographies of great musicians is one to be heartily recommended. Besides narrating the lives of such composers as Bach, Beethoven, and Wagner, it includes well-written accounts of other composers, men not as well known as they might be, but

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having had notable influence both on their own countries and on the history of music.

New Century Primer of Hygiene: First Book for Pupil's Use. By Mrs. Jeannette Winter Hall. The American Book Co., New York. 5×7½ in. 154 pages. 30c.

New Don Quixote (The). By Mary Pacheco. The Abbey Press, New York. 5¼×8 in. 241 pages. $1.

This sensational story, told in staccato style, would make a "rattling" melodrama. We hope that the author will put it on the stage, if for nothing more than publicly and delightfully to twist the British lion's tail before an appreciative American audience. No sensitiveness need be felt by the chance English auditor in a representation pointing out the foibles and follies of the British aristocracy and of hereditary legislation, so long as the English heroine amply redeems everything. The hero is an American citizen who suddenly falls heir to an earldom in England.

New Way Around an Old World (A). By Rev. Francis E. Clark, D.D. Illustrated. Harper & Bros., New York. 5×7½ in. 213 pages. $1.50.

Dr. Clark and his party were the first Americans to go around the world by way of Vladivostok, Lake Baikal, and St. Petersburg. The Trans-Siberian Railway had been opened but a few days when the Americans booked their places. Dr. Clark graphically describes the difficulties and the pleasures of the journey. Though his book's title is "A New Way Around an Old World," it might have been entitled "Siberia," since the volume is wholly taken up with an account of conditions in that country. Dr. Clark believes that the journey by the new railway from the Pacific to the Atlantic is unsurpassable not only for vastness of extent but also for variety of scenery.

Priest and a Woman (A). By Landis Ayr. The Abbey Press, New York. 5×8 in. 268 pages. $1.

Principles of Plant Culture. By E. S. Goff. (Second Edition, Revised.) Illustrated. Published by the Author, Madison, Wis. 5×7¾ in. 288 pages. $1.

Protestant Missions in South America. By Harlan P. Beach, F.A.G.S., Canon F. P. L. Josa, Prof. J. Taylor Hamilton, Rev. H. C. Tucker, Rev. C. W. Drees, D.D., Rev. I. H. La Fetra, Rev. T. B. Wood, LL.D., and Mrs. T. S. Pond. Student Volunteer Movement for Foreign Missions, New York. 5×7½ in. 241 pages. 50c.

The appearance of this book just as the Pan-American Exposition is near its opening is timely. Even those who care little for missions will find it valuable for the full and fresh information of a geographical, statistical, and political sort that it contains, and for its bibliography of works on South American countries. Those who feel that the difference in religion between the United States and the Latin-American republics has some weight in accounting for other differences will, of course, sympathize with the missionary interest in which the book centers. In any point of view South American interests are, or should be, near to us. It will not much longer be "the neglected continent," but one of the main areas of the conquests of civilization in the twentieth century. Such are the views which this book enforces.

Question of Silence (A). By Amanda M. Douglas. Dodd, Mead & Co., New York. 5×7¾ in. 365 pages. $1.50.

In this book Miss Douglas—already well known as a writer of stories for the young—abundantly proves her ability to construct a readable romance for older persons. Her plot is an ingenious one, and is fairly well sustained, but her characters seem to lack a certain clearness in the "sketching in" process. The style is agreeably free from self-consciousness, and is well adapted to a tale which, founded upon a psychological problem of special interest, stands morally for self-control and for reliance upon what is best in humanity.

Reconstruction in Theology. By Henry Churchill King. The Macmillan Co., New York. 5¼×8 in. 257 pages. $1.50.

Reserved for later notice.

Religious Use of the Bible (The). By George A. Barton, Ph.D. The Leeds & Riddle Co., 1019 Market St., Philadelphia. 5½×8½ in. 19 pages. 15c.

Satchel Guide for the Vacation Tourist in Europe. By W. J. Rolfe, Litt.D. With Maps. Edition for 1901. Revised Annually. Houghton, Mifflin & Co., Boston. 4×6 in. 307 pages. $1.50.

A new edition of a popular general European guide, always useful in planning the broad outlines of a trip, and admirably supplementing guide-books, like Baedeker's, which deal with the countries separately.

School Management and Methods of Instruction, with Special Reference to Elementary Schools. By George Collar, B.A., B.Sc., and Charles W. Crook, B.A., B.Sc. The Macmillan Co., New York. 4½×7 in. 336 pages. $1.

This book is written for English teachers by English experts in teaching. But, as in the industrial arts, the best workers in any country seek to know how they do it best in other countries, so progressive American teachers will find it advantageous to consult these authors. They take a wide range of subjects, from the alphabet to Euclid, French, and old English, together with music, manual training, and physical exercises.

Selections from the Prose Tales of Edgar Allan Poe. (Macmillan's Pocket American and English Classics.) The Macmillan Co., New York. 4×5¾ in. 343 pages. 25c.

Sick and Wounded in South Africa (The): What I Saw and Said of Them and of the Army Medical System. By Burdett-Coutts, M.P. Cassell & Co., New York. 5×8 in. 260 pages.

Songs of Exile. By Hebrew Poets. Translated by Nina Davis. The Jewish Publication Society of America, Philadelphia. 4½×6½ in. 146 pages.

Splendid Porsenna (The). By Mrs. Hugh Fraser. The J. B. Lippincott Co., Philadelphia. 4½×7¼ in. 294 pages. 50c.

Sweetheart Manette. By Maurice Thompson. The J. B. Lippincott Co., Philadelphia. 5×7¾ in. 259 pages. $1.25.

Ten Months a Captive Among Filipinos. By Albert Sonnichsen. Charles Scribner's Sons, New York. 5¼×8¼ in. 388 pages. $2.

This is a book to be read from cover to cover. If any part must be skipped, it should be the first, which is too leisurely in style, and shows the author at his worst, when he is captured upon a photograph-hunting escapade, taken under the guise of an English newspaper cor-

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respondent. Soon, however, the author's adventures come to be worth recounting, and the reader becomes convinced that he is telling his experiences exactly as they occurred, without any desire to make out a case for or against the Filipinos. At the beginning he saw chiefly the dark side of Filipino civilization, and at times was saved from violence at the hands of mobs only by the soldiery guarding him. His first prison, too, was a disgrace to the Filipino cause, but even here there was the same difference in humanity between the different Filipino commandants as there is between different men in every race. When, however, the author reaches the country of the Ilicanos, in northern Luzon, where the people were further away from the scenes of war and less hostile to American rule, he was treated by the captors almost as well as Lieutenant Sargent was treated by his hosts when on the now famous journey through Luzon, before the rupture between our troops and those of the Filipino Government. Especially was this true at Vigan, where Mr. Sonnichsen became the warm friend of the doctor who cared for him through a long sickness, and at Bangurd, where he became a teacher of English, having in his school a dozen or more children of the well-to-do families. These experiences are full of interest, and no one who begins the volume with the chapter entitled "Filipino Friends" is likely to lay it aside until he has read to the end.

Things Seen: Impressions of Men, Cities, and Books. By G. W. Steevens. Selected and Edited by G. S. Street. With a Memoir by W. E. Henley. The Bowen-Merrill Co., Indianapolis, Ind. 5×7¾ in. 326 pages.

Mr. Steevens rarely wrote, even for newspaper use, anything not well worth preserving. These collected papers touch some more serious topics than he often treated—"The New Humanitarianism," "Mr. Balfour's Philosophy," and "The Monotype," for instance. With these are some of the best of his pen-pictures, among them "What Happened in Thessaly," "The Jubilee," and "The Derby." Mr. W. E. Henley furnishes a memoir of Mr. Steevens in which the personal impression the latter made is summed up in the words: "To realize George Steevens, you must put away everything but simplicity, kindness, sincerity. A serene and comely blending of these was so plain in him that you could see naught else. And, in fact, there was naught else to be seen."

To Nazareth or Tarsus? By the Author of "Not on Calvary," etc. The J. S. Ogilvie Publishing Co., New York. 5×7½ in. 217 pages. $1.

Traitor in London (A). By Fergus Hume. F. M. Buckles & Co., New York. 5×7½ in. 355 pages. $1.25.

Two-Book Course in English (A). By Mary F. Hyde. Book I. Lessons in the Use of English. 223 pages. 35c. Book II. Practical English Grammar. 331 pages. 60c. D. C. Heath & Co., Boston.

Walton's Lives and the Complete Angler. The Macmillan Co., New York. 5¾×9 in. 497 pages. $1.25.

A new volume in the "English Classics" series—light to the hand, clear of print, moderate in price.

Washington, Letters to, and Accompanying Papers. Published by the Society of the Colonial Dames of America. Edited by Stanislaus Murray Hamilton. Vol. III. 1758-1770. Houghton, Mifflin & Co., Boston. 5¾×8¾ in. 402 pages. $5.

Wasps and their Ways. By Margaret W. Morley. Illustrated. Dodd, Mead & Co., New York. 5×7¾ in. 316 pages. $1.50.

Written for the general reader rather than for the special student. Pains have been taken to make the book pleasing to the eye by many marginal pen drawings. One is surprised to find how much there is of curious interest in the habits of the industrious if somewhat disagreeable wasp. His house-building, housekeeping, hunting, family-raising, and social customs are all of a life-story here well and simply told.

What is the Matter with the Church? By Frederick Stanley Root. The Abbey Press, New York. 5×8 in. 188 pages. $1.

It is, we believe, a well-recognized principle in art that disregard of perspective destroys the picture. This book disregards perspective, and therefore it is untrue. That one of the smaller Congregational pulpits in Connecticut received not less than two hundred and fifty applications may be true; that now and then a single church can be found which runs in debt in order to maintain a three-thousand-dollar "crack quartette" is true; that there are ministers—too many of them—whose caution overbalances their courage, and who dare not speak the whole truth from the pulpit, is true; but these truths do not represent the real spirit, character, or condition of the modern Church. They are out of proportion to the actual facts. This lack of proportion, this false perspective, in our judgment, prevents the book from rendering the service to the Church which might be rendered by a well-considered volume presenting in true proportion the virtues and the faults, the excellences and the deficiencies, of the churches of the present day. This book is not just criticism; it is not even a true indictment.

Wheeler's Graded Readers. By Gail Calmerton and William H. Wheeler. Illustrated. W. H. Wheeler & Co., Chicago. 6×7¾ in. 128 pages.

Works of Charles Dickens. (The Authentic Edition.) Vol. VII. Dombey and Son. Illustrated. Charles Scribner's Sons, New York. 5¾×8½ in. 742 pages. $1.50.

Year of Life (A). By William Samuel Lilly. John Lane, New York. 5×7¾ in. 494 pages.

A second edition of this well-liked book.

In a brief notice of "Hints for Home Reading," published in this department two weeks ago, the reviewer incorrectly stated that the "Book-Buyers' Guide" section did not contain "Rhodes's History of the United States" and Stevenson's Letters. Our attention has been called to the fact that both books, in point of fact, are included in the selected list of books. The titles escaped our notice because the classification was somewhat unusual, the first book named appearing under the general title "Civil War," and the second under "Standard Literature." Other books named by us as not contained in the "Book-Buyers' Guide" were published, we are told, too late to be included.

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Correspondence

Cuban Independence

To the Editors of The Outlook:

When, a few weeks ago, there was a violent epidemic of Cuban annexation talk, I was so much pleased with The Outlook's emphatic protest that I called the attention of my people to it in my Sunday morning's sermon. But it was, I think, only the next week that I found The Outlook swinging into line with the Army Bill amendment, for which it has since been an eager advocate. Of course that amendment does not mean the annexation of Cuba, but as little does it mean Cuban independence, and it was Cuban independence on which you insisted a few weeks ago. I cannot but think that your editorial "Cuba," in the paper of this day (March 23), is something less than candid in its suppression of all reference to those conditions of the amendment which were the only ones obnoxious to the Cuban mind—the establishment of naval stations and the retention of the Isle of Pines. The last particular suggests a Good Samaritan discovering that the poor fellow left half dead by the way had one denarius left, *and stealing that*, after rescuing him from the thieves and taking care of him. The naval stations are a more important matter. They are a distinct limitation of Cuban independence. They break the promise that we made so solemnly. They will not in the least conduce to better government in Cuba. Let us suppose that when Great Britain acknowledged the independence of the American Colonies she had proposed to use Boston and Baltimore and Charleston for her own naval stations. Should we have thought that we had our independence? I think not. But the parallel is imperfect. I should have said, "Suppose that France, after coming to the aid of the American Colonies, had insisted that she must have Long Island for her very own, and naval stations at Boston, Baltimore, and Charleston, should we have meekly acceded to such conditions, or, if we had found no alternative, should we have been as grateful to our deliverers as if, having achieved our liberation, they had left us entirely to ourselves, trusting us to give them every treaty right which they could honorably expect?"

We are so big and Cuba is so little that we can probably compel her to accept our conditions without force of arms. But it is an evil day when any little country has no better reason than that for making itself subject to our will.

JOHN WHITE CHADWICK.

Brooklyn, N. Y.

[We have explicitly declared editorially that the United States has no right to demand naval or coaling stations of Cuba. There is a question whether the Isle of Pines is a part of Cuba or passed to America by our treaty with Spain, which conveyed all other islands in the vicinity to the United States. This question the Platt amendment reserves to be settled by future diplomacy, and Cuban correspondents have asserted that the Convention manifests no objections to this very proper course.—THE EDITORS.]

Law Enforcement in Kansas

To the Editors of The Outlook:

The truth about the effectiveness of prohibition in Kansas, and the work and influence of Mrs. Nation, is as follows:

First. In comparing Kansas with Kansas—the Kansas of to-day with the Kansas prior to 1880—I find that in the State, prior to the adoption of the present law, drunkenness prevailed in public and private life—on the bench, in official circles, everywhere. It is only fair to admit that some of this was due to the frontier conditions, which conditions prevail less and less every year. At the present time drunkenness is rarely seen, and the practice of drinking to excess comes nearer being disreputable in the opinion of the public in Kansas than in any other State of the Union. The railroad companies and other employers of men are not annoyed by the drunkenness of employees, and there is everywhere an extraordinary exemption from the usual repulsive and terrifying effects of the alcoholic drug habit.

Second. This leads to a comparison of Kansas with other States. I have had

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occasion to travel extensively in all parts of the country, and I am certain that nowhere are the evil effects of liquor-drinking so little discoverable as in Kansas. In all of the high-license States I see exhibitions of drunkenness and reports of drunken crimes which would shock Kansas people beyond measure.

Third. The statistics concerning crime, insanity, disease, and pauperism show that Kansas holds an enviable position in this respect. Furthermore, matters pertaining to crime, insanity, and pauperism that are treated as serious in Kansas would attract no notice in New York.

Fourth. The enforcement of the law in the State generally has been very satisfactory to those friends of the law who have knowledge of the question of law enforcement generally. The mild and gentle closing law in New York is worse treated than the Kansas prohibitory law in the most lawless place.

Fifth. In a very few towns in the State the prohibitory law has been considerably nullified. When the law first went into effect in Topeka, the Mayor of that city instituted a system of licensing the saloons by assessing a periodical fine. He very soon abandoned that plan because of threatened proceedings to oust him from office. Since then that plan has never been adopted in Topeka. In Wichita, Kansas City (Kansas), Leavenworth, and Atchison, for a part of the time since the law was adopted, saloons have been fined periodically, the fine really taking the place of a license fee, and thus in those towns a high license has been in effect. This was to have been expected. In the campaign preceding the adoption of the constitutional amendment I expressed in print the opinion that—"If saloons are made unlawful in Kansas, that fact will not insure the entire suppression of the sale of liquor for the prohibited purpose; there will be illicit selling in great quantities; in some localities the law will be persistently and seriously disregarded; but drunkenness will be diminished; the interference of the saloon in politics will be largely prevented; and in all communities where the temperance sentiment is really in the ascendency the machinery of the law will be available and saloons will not be permitted to exist." This prophecy has been fulfilled to the letter. Even in the places where the law has apparently been nullified by the substitution of a periodical fine in place of the payment of a license, there still remain the extra restraint which the law accomplished; the unpopularity of the saloon business so conducted for both the seller and the buyer; the fact that the better class of men who make limited use of liquor will not patronize the illegal saloons; and the absolute restraint of the liquor-sellers from interference in general politics. In former days the saloon men controlled the disposition of a very large proportion of the offices, regardless of whether they had any direct connection with the liquor business or not. Politics was an immediate and important branch of the saloon business. At the present time saloon men, or, as they are commonly called in Kansas, the jointists, do not dare to incur the hostility of one political party as against another, and they therefore keep clear of nearly all political matters except such as pertain strictly to the liquor business. They do work to secure prosecuting attorneys in sympathy with them, but they do not dare undertake to control elections generally, after the former manner.

Sixth. In a very great majority of the towns in the State the law is observed, and saloons in any form—as joints or otherwise—are practically prevented; as nearly prevented as any objectionable practice ever is. In Topeka, where Mrs. Nation has lately been making so much news, and where the joints have lately been bold beyond their custom, practically no drunkenness is to be seen, few of the citizens are able to tell where liquor can be found, and the ordinary evidence of the presence of liquor-selling is not to be seen. The joints are patronized only by those who are determined to have liquor regardless of how or where they get it, and the social feature of drinking is practically extinct. At almost every State election since the law was adopted the question has in some form or other been in issue. In every case the vote of the people has been adverse to any modification of the law. The present session of the Legislature has added a strong statute in aid of the law's enforcement.

Seventh. As for Mrs. Nation and her influence, the matter seems to me very simple. Mrs. Nation is an ignorant but

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kind-hearted, benevolent, and respectable woman who has an especial hatred for the liquor business, but more enthusiasm than discretion, and an intellectual method which in the matter of her hobby amounts to insanity. So long as she lynched only the joints, the people were rather more amused than shocked, as it was merely one outlaw against another. It was natural, almost inevitable, however, that she should get beyond this work and invade places that were in no sense lawless. Then she was restrained. If I ask who brought about the enactment of the present temperance law and who caused Kansas to be as temperate as she now is, I find that I cannot give the credit to Mrs. Nation or those like her. Mrs. Nation will have no particular influence one way or the other, except that her lawlessness will for a time greatly irritate those (believers in the law or otherwise) who have always demanded enforcement of the law because it is the law. The law was adopted without her or her methods; it has been retained and improved without her or her methods; it has been in the main well enforced without her or her methods; and its future will not be perceptibly affected by her or her methods. Her methods are like fighting flies with gunpowder—the uproar attracts attention, and the flies for a time quit work. But they come back and stay despite the gunpowder. Quite different is the patient, persistent, quiet, and relentless work of those behind the moral forces of the communities in the State. Those who think Mrs. Nation's performances of special consequence in this matter are like those who expected Coxey's army to revolutionize industrial conditions in this country, or like those who think John Brown freed the slaves. The work of freeing the slaves had been going on for many years in England, Brazil, and the United States—in fact, in the whole civilized world; and the John Brown episode, while picturesque and startling, was only one small force among millions working for the establishment of universal freedom. Mrs. Nation's method is the lynch-law method. It often happens that lynchers lynch those who deserve punishment, but no sane man has ever yet dared to advocate reliance on lynch law for the advancement of morality in organized communities.

Topeka, Kan. CHARLES S. GLEED.

No Matter

To the Editors of The Outlook:

Your review of Dr. Gordon's "An Age for Faith" in the March 2 number, so clear and luminous, as a whole, seems to fall, at one point, into an unanticipated but most common and persistent confusion.

You declare that one of the truths which we accept as an axiom is that of the existence of matter, and then add: "The basal premise of science is the reality of the external world. Every one knows that the world is real."

And in this you say "is summed up the argument against that pseudo-idealism which denies, or thinks it denies, the reality of matter"!

In all of this you manifestly identify the question of the reality of the external world with the question of the reality of matter.

Does this identity exist? Those who stand for theistic idealism—and their number and prominence in the field of metaphysics certainly give weight to their thought—contend that any concept of the reality of the external world which harmonizes with the Christian postulates of the divine nature, that God is Spirit, Mind, the one Infinite Source of all Being, the All in all, must preclude the possibility of the reality of matter, as a lump space-filling stuff, in and through which the energies of the divine will are manifest.

They maintain that to condition God by positing as real and objective to himself this somewhat which the most eminent scientists no longer hesitate to recognize as a pure and simple mental projection, like color and sound, is to deny his infinity, as well as the law that like begets like.

"That which is born of spirit is spirit," and the common-sense concept of matter, the "unreasoned assumption of sense-experience," to which you seem to attach such an unphilosophical significance, is certainly the antipode of spirit in every particular.

The "basal premise of physical science" is an external world of *force*, not matter, and its deductions are daily establishing the contention of the Christian Idealist that "the world exists only as a form of the divine activity," that "all is infinite mind and its infinite manifestation."

The testimony of common material sense militates against this conclusion

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quite as much as and no more than did the traditional common-sense assertion that the world was flat, against that tide of clearer vision which speedily swept away all opposing "authorities" to reveal our "full-orbed earth."

Boston, Mass. JOHN B. WILLIS.

The Remarkable Discoveries in Egypt

To the Editors of The Outlook:

The recent presentation of one hundred and eighteen papyri by the Egypt Exploration Fund to our colleges includes by far the earliest yet discovered texts of Sts. Matthew, Mark, John, and Paul, and those of the classical masters. The antiquities presented are largely from Abydos, the site of the royal tombs of the first dynasty, where the society, through Petrie, is now disclosing history of from 4400 to 4800 B.C. Drs. Grenfell and Hunt again seek for papyri; Mr. Davies is recording perishable mural scenes and inscriptions before they are forever lost to science. The history of archæology affords no other instance in which such great discoveries are made at such little cost. I read of $50,000, even $100,000, required or spent on an expedition, or for a single site, in other lands. In 1899–1900 this office sent over each year just $6,000 to so varied a work.

There is no endowment, and the continuance of the work depends absolutely on each year's subscriptions. The fine quarto volume of the year, abounding in plates and illustrations, is sent to each subscriber of not less than five dollars to the explorations; also the "Archæological Report" brochure, full of data, and the annual report. Patrons contribute $25; life membership is $125. Checks should be made payable to Francis C. Foster, Honorary Treasurer, and our illustrated circulars will be gladly sent on application to the Rev. W. C. Winslow, Honorary Secretary, or Mrs. M. N. Buckman, Secretary, Egypt Exploration Fund, 59 Temple Street, Boston. All the honorary officials give their services, and, as the working Vice-President, all my arduous labors are an offering to the cause of knowledge. We owe the press very much, and we will try to furnish it more of the "news" that old Egypt holds in reserve. Nearly seven hundred eminent Americans have subscribed, among them 121 college presidents, of whom President Hazard, of Wellesley, is the last. The monster dam building at Philæ will in a few years add vastly to agricultural production, which means destruction to papyri otherwise preserved for many years to come. Let us push on exploration, and raise $10,000 this year.

For the Committee,
WILLIAM COPLEY WINSLOW,
Vice-President and Honorary Secretary.

A Case in Point

To the Editors of The Outlook:

The Outlook says most truly, as to "Farm-House Burning" in the issue of March 19, "Each case must be judged by the facts bearing on that case." Your correspondent cites a case in point, perhaps unconsciously, for "General Hunter burned down his own cousin's house" because, with or without Mr. Andrew Hunter's permission, sharpshooters fired therefrom on Union troops. Having known General Hunter well, I rather fancy he was glad that this painful discipline fell upon his own flesh and blood. Nepotism would have been impossible to him, but he could be routed by the tears of a little Confederate girl when she saw the blood-stained flag of her "lost cause" in a museum

And now will some one, for the enlightenment of not only Americans but the world, publish the statistics of the total loss of the English, both from wounds and disease, in the Boer war, and simultaneously publish the loss (of killed and wounded only) in any great battle of the Civil War in America? The other half of the world cannot believe that we lost more men in one battle than they have in a two years' war, but it is a fact—a sad fact for many people known to fame, and to many more humble.

And now to return to the "burnt homesteads." Take the area of the Dutch Republics, and for every homestead burned, ten beautiful and stately homes in the South were destroyed, often in pure wantonness.

It is well to find some good out of evil, and in childhood we rejoiced to deck our playhouses with the fragments of costly china destroyed in a single night's occupation by Sherman's troops.

After the war was over, the officer in

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command (?) of these ribald soldiers returned the piano with a kind note, apologizing for the destruction, and saying that he had the piano boxed and shipped away to save it from destruction also. This home was off the line of march and a hundred miles from any battle, nor was it suggested that the owners were blameworthy. It was war! and in South Africa it is also war! "GLASS HOUSES."

[Mr. Charles D. Pierce, who was Consul to the United States from the Orange Free State, asserted in January last that out of the 210,000 British soldiers then landed in South Africa, forty-five per cent. had been in one way or another incapacitated, including the sick as well as killed, wounded, and missing. The total loss at Gettysburg (killed, wounded, and missing) on both sides was about 45,000.—THE EDITORS.]

Readers of Mr. Booker Washington's autobiographical chapters which have just been concluded in The Outlook will be interested to know that the Social Reform Club of New York is to give a dinner to Mr. and Mrs. Washington, at the Clarendon Hotel, Fourth Avenue and Eighteenth Street, this city, on Tuesday evening, April 2. In conformity to the spirit and practice of the Club, the dinner is to be an inexpensive one. The price of the tickets, which may be obtained of Mr. J. K. Paulding, 130 East Twenty-fourth Street, is seventy-five cents each.

Notes and Queries

It is seldom possible to answer any inquiry in the next issue after its receipt. Those who find expected answers late in coming will, we hope, bear in mind the impediments arising from the constant pressure of many subjects upon our limited space. Communications should always bear the writer's name and address. Any book named in Notes and Queries will be sent by the publishers of The Outlook, postpaid, on receipt of price.

The following is taken from a published abstract of a sermon delivered recently in our city: "He spoke of the earthly hope of Jesus, and how, after his death, the process of deification, common in those times, went on until, in the Athanasian Creed, composed during the fifth century, the doctrine of the Trinity took final shape." 1. Is the statement regarding the time of forming the doctrine of the Trinity correct? 2. What is the earliest time known at which Jesus was deified? X.

1. No. The doctrine of the Trinity cannot be said to have taken "final shape" before the appearance of the so-called Athanasian Creed in the eighth or ninth century. The Nicene Creed, formulated in the fourth century, is termed by Dr. Schaff, from the orthodox point of view, "semi-trinitarian." 2. After the New Testament writers, in the letters of Ignatius, Bishop of Antioch, at the beginning of the second century.

Kindly give the titles of some modern works that you can recommend on the fulfillment of the prophecies. A. V.

See Professor Briggs's "Messianic Prophecy" (Scribners, New York, $2.50). If you are thinking of a sort of book which treats of the fulfillments of Hebrew prophecy in the fortunes and misfortunes of the nations, *that* has lost standing with modern Biblical scholars. Hebrew prophecy has received its fulfillment in the triumph or overthrow of certain moral principles rather than in the sequences of historical events. For an exposition of its true character as ethical prediction rather than historical forecast, see Bruce on "The Chief End of Revelation," and W. R. Smith on "The Prophets of Israel and their Place in History."

Please state the doctrine of Retribution, and name the best books on the subject. I want to know whether the doctrine pertains to this life as well as the next; and if so, on what principle is it based, and how is it worked out? J. M. G.

"Whatsoever a man soweth, that shall he also reap," is the doctrine as stated by St. Paul (Galatians vi., 7). This covers both the present and the future, and applies to all sorts and conditions of men. For the way in which it is worked out see a chapter on The Reaction of Sin in "Turning-Points of Thought and Conduct" (T. Whittaker, New York, $1). For its future bearing, see Dr. E. Beecher on "The History of Opinions on the Scripture Doctrine of Retribution" (Appleton, New York, $1.50).

M. A.—Your inquiry, March 16, about the millennial terror in the tenth century has elicited further information, viz.:

This millennial notion, though it did exist, has been much exaggerated, especially by early writers, as Milman, for instance. Modern research has shown this to be the case. I do not know of any good account in English on the subject, though it is referred to in Emerton's "Mediæval Europe," pp. 149–50 (Ginn & Co., Boston). The three following works deal with the subject fully:

Eicken, H. Die Legende von der Erwartung des Weltuntergangs und der Wiederkehr Christi im Jahre 1000; in Forschunge zur Deutschen Geschichte, xxiii. (1883).

Roy, Jules. L'An Mille (Paris, 1885).

Orsi, P. L'Anno Mille; in Rivista Storica Italiana, IV. i. (1887.) N. M. T.

On the foregoing subject White's "Eighteen Christian Centuries" (Appleton, New York) is referred to by "J. M. P.," and Scheffel's "Ekkehard" by "E. H. H."

Some correspondents who have made inquiries of us about boys' clubs, and how to organize them, will find valuable suggestions in a recent publication by W. B. Forbush—"The Boy Problem, a Study in Social Psychology" (The Sabbath Literature Company, Albany, N. Y., 25 cents).

"W. M. T.," in The Outlook for March 9, will find the clearest comprehensive exposition of Theosophical principles in "The Ancient Wisdom," by Annie Besant. The earlier utterances of the Theosophical Society were some of them so little adapted to the comprehension of the Western mind that a reader selecting at random from their published works is apt to miss altogether the acceptable presentation of Theosophical ideas. STUDENT.

Other correspondents state, in addition to the foregoing, that "The Path," to which we referred as publishing Mrs. Besant's books, has been superseded by the "Universal Brotherhood Path Magazine," issued by the Theosophical Publishing Company, New York, of which, and of Messrs. Truslove & Comba, at 56 Fifth Avenue, a full assortment of theosophical books can be had.

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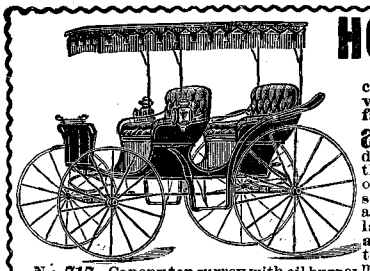

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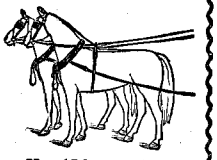

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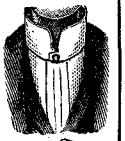

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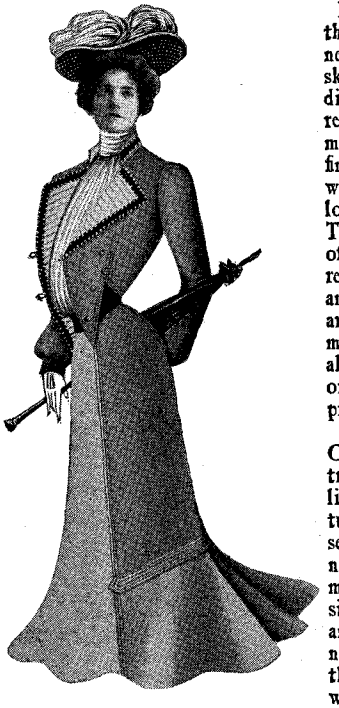

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